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ABSTRACT

This handbook is designed to help administrators, educators, politicans, and others engaged in distance education who seek to introduce, extend, or improve correspondence education for adults. In the first of six chapters, the background and history of correspondence study, particularly in Britain and the United States, are reviewed. Chapter 2 discusses international practices, definitions, clients, and sources of correspondence study. Correspondence study is defined as study based primarily on printed materials; it is considered a part of education at a distance. Six categories of organizations employing distance systems are identified. The third chapter provides a practical analysis of correspondence teaching and learning. Chapter 4 discusses the linkage of radio to correspondence courses in multi-media systems. Chapter 4 focuses on college planning and administration and presents a comprehensive model of a medium-sized correspondence unit or college. The final chapter presents an example of distance education in a case study on Thailand. Two appendixes include (1) an excerpt from an article on pedagogical aims, opportunities, and drawbacks in Thailand and (2) selected reference materials. (CSS)

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A HANDBOOK ON DISTANCE EDUCATION

(A handbook to brief and to help administrators, educationalists, politicians and all others engaged in distance education in countries seeking to introduce, extend or improve correspondence education for adults).

by W.J.A. Harris and J.D.S. Williams

Preface and appendix by C.J.J. Wiedhaup

U S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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A NOTE ON THE AUTHORS

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Conrad J. J. Wiedhaup who has been for six years president of the European Home Study Council, was for forty years director of the Stichting I.V.I.O., the well-known independent institution in Holland. Both Conrad Wiedhaup and Jack Harris were members of a UNESCO consultancy team on educational media in Thailand, 1974 where the idea of such a handbook as this was first discussed.

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PREFACE

When I set foot on the thorny field of correspondence education in my country — the Netherlands — some forty years ago, this teaching/learning system was hardly at the beginning of its emancipation and of the search for its specific objects and methods. Reading this handbook in those years might have been extremely useful in exploring the possibilities and tracing problems and solutions. It might have helped in avoiding rather dangerous pitfalls. But it was not yet there! The author states: "there are no blueprints for success." Agreed — but there are models for guidance and I found them in this Handbook, regretting that I did not find them long ago.

It is for this reason, that I wish that many of my colleagues from all over the world who are planning and integrating distance education in the development and the emancipation of their country, will make good use of the knowledge it gives, the experience it distributes.

Conrad J. J. Wiedhaup

President, European
Home Study Council

INTRODUCTION

There have been in the past decade, an increasing number of books and articles on this hitherto neglected area of education, i.e. correspondence education and "education at a distance". However, for both the general public and for many of one's colleagues engaged in education in all countries this is still a relatively unfamiliar aspect of teaching and learning. For many others it represents perhaps one of the most significant and promising growth areas in education in a world which is faced by so many urgent demands for expansion and for social or economic development.

Yet it may seem somewhat presumptuous to offer a handbook on the subject when there will be many who feel that they have spent very many years in this activity and have slightly different conclusions to draw on points of detail, and arising, from their own experience. Perhaps informed controversy is the lifeblood of educational progress and research, and long may it flourish in education!

This handbook is intended to serve a somewhat different purpose. It is aimed at briefing the educationalist, the administrator, the politician and all intelligent members of the public who have rather less acquaintanceship with correspondence study. It is concerned with the practical reasoning behind the method and with its practical planning and organisation. The idea for such a handbook arose from discussions between the two of us who were involved in consultation at Bangkok. Educational problems, particularly the problems of adult education, take on a different dimension when regarded from outside the confines of one's own cultural frontiers. This is one reason why the stress here is primarily on correspondence and on radio rather than on the glamour of television as a distance medium. Possibly the stress on a pragmatic rather than a merely "academic" view on correspondence study will stimulate a self-critical response not only amongst those in less developed economies but also within industrial communities with long established educational systems. Education itself is perhaps the most conservative vested interest in any society.

Here John Williams has been able to speak from his specialist experience in handling practical office administration and business accountancy. Conrad Wiedhaup has been generous in contributing his critical and understanding comments (based on an alternative and long educational experience) on the expression of views by the two main authors. I myself have written as an adult educationalist from an academic study of correspondence education as a major element in the education of adults. To both the above I wish to express my gratitude for being allowed virtually a free hand in editing the whole of our joint work to preserve some unity of format and style.

W. J. A. H.

Chapter I

WHY CORRESPONDENCE STUDY?

Why has education by correspondence been developed in so many countries in the past? And for what good reasons should any authorities or any communities give serious thought to its introduction or to its improvement at the present time? No one disagrees seriously with the proposition that Education itself is of crucial importance. It is however a relatively new feature that the idea of distance education should increasingly be proposed as a serious contribution to help solve educational problems, as a substantial answer to some of the inadequacies and failures of conventional educational systems and methods. It might seem somewhat illogical that in countries with many schools and colleges the use of a method of teaching and learning through the relatively cumbersome communication channel of the postal services has come to be regarded, both in developing societies and in highly sophisticated economies, as an essential element in education. This is all the more surprising because correspondence study had for long, in some public circles, carried the slur of doubtful social virtue. Among many conventional educationalists it had endured the reputation of being a poor substitute, a second-best makeshift, for face-to-face classroom teaching. Past misjudgements on its social and educational effectiveness must be blamed partly, it could be admitted by us, on the instinctive conservatism of the educational world, as well as on the malpractices of some educational entrepreneurs. It was to be blamed partly also on the earlier objectives and priorities, several generations ago, of society itself.

Both in the industrial nations of Europe and America and in the newer nations and less privileged areas of Africa and Asia there appear now to have been three major trends which have favoured the expansion of distance education systems. To the influence of these trends have been added that of the new facilities available for "distance communication" which have been provided by technological advance. The three trends, noted by many writers, have been political, economic and social. The first has been the move towards greater educational opportunity (however this is defined) for every individual,and away from educational elitism. Secondly, economic, the move towards a highly cost-conscious provision of education, towards an ideal of the most "effective" education for the largest number of people at the lowest possible cost to the community. This has come to mean not merely a more

careful costing of education, but also the further education and part-time re-education or re-training of adults in employment. The third, social in a community sense, is the encouragement of constructive learning and of changing attitudes amongst the great majority of people who are not able or not prepared to become registered students in any formal sense, but who can yet be persuaded to adjust and to learn, without any disciplined study for qualifications. All three trends would probably be encouraged by most politicians and administrators today, even if many would have their own ideas as to how the trends ought to be interpreted. Distance education being an "open" system of communication (in many different ways) seems to favour all three in a manner which cannot really be rivalled by any further expansion of institutions. It is extensive, economical, flexible and informal.

History might perhaps give us some clues as to why correspondence education has developed and why it survives so healthily. It is true that, in the past, individual and private initiative had provided the main response, through such provision, to individual demand. Gradually but increasingly the public authorities, as education and training have come to consume a major part of the public budget, have in a similar way turned to education by correspondence. It has become part of public planning, although not necessarily of public provision. Teaching by post had in the experience of many countries, such as the United States, Britain, Netherlands and Germany, commenced and developed as a private response to meet a private individual need, a demand for particular kinds of vocational education and training. This was true also of private commercial-training colleges and of tutorial classes. Where the demand soon outstripped the class provision or moved out of geographical reach of the original class-institutions it was a logical step to continue the teaching or to extend its impact by use of the new technology of the typewriter and the improved printing presses. Much of this dates from the 1880s and the 1890s, when many of the large correspondence teaching institutions were started — a number of which are still operating today in Sweden, America, Britain and elsewhere. The demand for education appears always to have continued to increase faster than the provision, even in these days of massive spending by authorities on education. Today there must by any reasonable estimate be many millions everywhere who study by correspondence, either in part or as their only learning method. The public authorities in many countries have by the present time become convinced of the need to move into this field of educational activity themselves, although in a wide variety of different organisational patterns.

Just which set of conditions have in the past led always to the spread of postal study it is difficult to say with any certainty. Different reasons and conditions have encouraged the practice at different times in quite different communities, but in the earlier days it has usually been in the form of study at home rather than of study in groups. Those who organised and provided

the study material have sometimes been commercial organisations, sometimes religious and other welfare bodies, sometimes universities and similar non-profit independent educational institutions. Only comparatively recently do we find the Ministries or ministry departments and the statutory institutions as main providers. This is some evidence of the convenient flexibility of the method and of its ability to adjust to many conditions.

In some countries, in Britain for example, the very earliest examples of organised postal study have been related not to school-type examinations, but to the needs of people wanting to train for work in commercial offices, even of shorthand writers. Occupations with respected professional associations, such as accountancy, banking and company management had set up examinations to develop and preserve their high standards, but lacked adequate training facilities beyond systems of professional apprenticeship, "learning on the job." Those with the practical experience were often ready to pass on their skills. Even today the trainees for these professions combine continuing practical experience with learning of the theory by correspondence. Then there were thousands of new teachers needed for an expanding school system, and teacher-training institutions were very far from adequate in number.

The Civil Service demanded many competent new employees in its hundreds of new offices, and some correspondence colleges came to specialise in this type of training. Institutions offering to help the home learners found many customers for their courses. The early tradition, and one that is still alive today in countries such as Britain, was that of experienced practioners and ex-professionals (not necessarily trained as teachers) training others from their own fund of practical knowledge and up-to-date live experience. The private tutor, for the adult student worker learning at home, found himself obliged by the rapidly increasing demand for his services, to organise and to professionalise his contribution through a new type of educational institution, the correspondence college or correspondence school — with offices and warehouses in place of class-rooms.

This early tradition was also one of self-help and of self-teaching by the ambitious individual. The individual, desperately eager to learn for his own advancement and for his own self-respect, provided his own strong motivation for disciplined study. He, or she, was ready to grasp at help from almost any study material or from any organisation, however imperfect or unsuitable. The obvious danger was that there was no check on teaching standards except the dissatisfied student, and the student was isolated, aware of general lack of knowledge, and vulnerable socially. It was not surprising that there were a few schools in all communities who took advantage of the situation to be careless, less than scrupulous or else frankly lacking in honesty, and these harmed the reputation of the many good

correspondence colleges and of correspondence study in general. Over many years now the situation has changed considerably. The method of correspondence study has been refined and researched. It has proved itself as not only an effective technique of learning, but one which carried considerable advantages in certain situations over any other way of learning. It has shown itself adaptable to very many individual and community needs.

There is little doubt that in a number of countries the pressure for organised correspondence study came first from individuals wanting to learn, and wishing to learn at home, and not from the calculations of planners of education and training. The pressure came also, although indirectly from the demands of commerce, of industry, of the education profession itself and of government service for many more efficient employees than the form system could provide. It could be suggested that without correspondence education there might have been no "Western" commercial and industrial revolution in the late 19th and early 20th century in all its momentum and power. Such education was a half-hidden re-inforcement and background to the more visible improvement to the *formal* educational system, much of which did not always appear very relevant to the real needs of the day.

A few of the early correspondence colleges combined teaching by post with other methods such as classroom or lecturehall instruction. Some colleges, in a country like Britain with a relatively dense population and many growing industrial towns, held occasional urban meetings, mass rallies rather than lectures. A few attempted student newsletters to encourage a sense of belonging to a community of learners. The historical periods when rapid expansion in particular seems to have occurred, in enrolments, were in the late 19th century, during the 1910 - 1920 period (years of intensive industrial and war disruption), during the 1930s economic recovery from the Depression years, and particularly in the recovery years after the second world-war. This suggests that correspondence education expansion accompanied and contributed to the community's successful response to crisis conditions, and may have been an important factor in this response, though the evidence is admittedly incomplete. In the 20th century in Britain, moreover, the teacher-training function and the preparation for government service appear to have become *less* prominent as objectives for this form of study. On the other hand the technical courses, those for special local government skills and duties, and those for adults taking higher-level school examinations and certain university degrees (permitted as "external degrees") expanded greatly in the first half of this century. In the United States where the credit degree structure contrasted with the British degree, university degree study by correspondence became by far the most prominent and expanding area in this field. In Britain since the starting of the huge Open University in 1971 the number of adults studying in this way for University degrees has risen to over 100,000. Amongst the major private and

non-government colleges in that country the available evidence in the 1960s was that each college had enrolments of between 20,000 and 25,000 a year. In many cases, with the special exception of the Open University, the examining authorities for the British courses are often public and quite distinct from the study institutions.

The position in countries other than Britain and the United States in the early years of correspondence study, presents special local contrasts. It is difficult to generalise on the conditions which seem to have suited its application, whether geographcial, economic or social. Possible the dominant factors in the past have been social and political or administrative. For instance, in France, where the popularity of the method does not seem to have developed as early as elsewhere, it was the conditions resulting from the outbreak of war in 1939 and the dispersal of school-children to less vulnerable areas which led to the setting up of the National Centre for Correspondence Education. This was initially mainly for older children at (academic) lycee-level, and the technical subject classes and then the primary-level classes followed in later years. Higher level education was added later still. Adult courses (with 13,000 students in the 1960s) were also to follow. There were special regional centres, one of which specialised in vocational training in co-operation with the French Railways, and others on civil service preparation and on commercial subjects. Yet this was a country not very dissimiliar to Britain, but in contrast the emphasis has been on state provision and on "schooling", perhaps because of a markedly different and more centralised tradition of French Ministry education. Yet in Australia, with distinct British links though with a completely different geographical and constitutional position (a relatively small population scattered in isolated states in a large semi-desert continent) the earliest large-scale provision of correspondence study was also under government auspices (as in France) and was also for elementary and secondary school children (with parent or teacher assistance). This was as far back as 1914 and was extended to serve adults. Australia was one of the pioneers in developing teaching of technical subjects and (later) of university degrees with corrrespondence as a major ingredient. Correspondence students compete with fully resident students at residential university-colleges.

In the United States of America the pattern is one of vigorous free enterprise, with commercial, university and independent welfare organisations all involved, from the end of the 19th century. The pattern was "so diverse as almost to defy generalisation". With the special challenge for change in the 1960s and the "knowledge explosion" of that decade we find estimates of almost three million studying by correspondence in 1965. A large proportion in the U.S.A. armed forces were using these study methods, as were adults in federal and state administration, business and industry, religious organisations, trade and professional organisations and many in unclassified

occupations. There was no centralised direction of provision and only a private national Home Study Association exercising some control and leadership over quality and standards of teaching and co-ordinating effort. At the further end of the scale in organisation and control there are the Eastern European communist regimes, with Soviet Russia as the leading example. Here the large populations and the expansive territory involving great distances, are well served by a form of distance education, but it appears to have been the political conditions which in a sense determined the form. After the "October" revolution and in the early 1920s correspondence study became a natural component of the state-directed revolutionary strategy. The early emphasis, as in the 1922 Commission, was on the "Improvement of Self-education" with government direction and provision. The subjects included Labour education, Natural sciences, Sociology, Economics, Architecture and Civil engineering, as well as "part leadership" and Co-operative administration. In 1931, when a Correspondence-study Act had been introduced to assist in the training of production workers, there were reported to be 350,000 enrolled in such higher academic courses. By the 1960s the correspondence sections were an integral part of the educational system at every level, with more adults studying part-time by correspondence than by regular day-time study. The totals enrolled in the former had reached almost one and a half million. Correspondence education has become a tool in planned social change. This is a view which must have a special appeal in the more recently evolved nation states, large or small.

In many countries, as education has come to be regarded as a social duty rather than merely a social privilege, there is a special challenge both to self-study and also to correspondence education as the principal path to self-study.

Why, then, study by correspondence?

There are a variety of reasons which lead the learner to adopt correspondence study where this is available and well organised. These reasons must of course be given due weight in planning or in reforming any scheme of educational provision. Recent research suggests that the most important, for the individual, relate to the *independence* of this form of study. The learner values the control over his/her pace of study, the time of commencing courses, the relative power to adjust a study programme and even its content, and to plan one's own study-work to suit one's many other adult duties and demands. The second group of reasons relate to the *convenience* of correspondence part-time study, the non-availability of suitable classes (or of any classes whatsoever), the attraction of avoiding tiresome travel to classes, the absence of places for group study and the possibility of some contact with teachers and fellow-learners even when scattered over a wide area. A third group of reasons, supporting the reasons above, arise from the *individualist*

preferences of many adult learners. Many, though not all, men and women prefer the lesser competitive element, the absence of distracting social elements and the possibility of individual attention and help. Not all systems of "distance education" serve to meet equally all these reasons.

For the *provider* of the education, who today is often the public authority, the reasons for using correspondence systems has slightly different emphases. All relate in some degree to maximising the use of scarce time and of course resources in providing for urgent and large scale changes in education. Prominent among the reasons for many authorities is the need for rapid expansion of teaching and training facilities, particularly for efficient teachers in the more formal educational system. Other reasons which in this connection have influenced authorities have related to the wish to introduce *urgent changes* in the content and curriculum of national training and education over a wide area. In some cases the emphasis has been on upgrading of the *quality of teaching* and the preparation of greatly improved teaching material within existing educational institutions. In other cases there has been the wish either to change public attitudes or to contribute to the special skills of *key public personnel* outside the more formal institutions. The main reaction of the providers to the question of why correspondence education should be adopted has been a recognition of the flexibility and wide range of the method as a tool for meeting public demand and for national development. This is the special attraction of distance education for those countries undergoing rapid social and economic change within a bewildering and changeable world landscape.

Chaper II

INTERNATIONAL PRACTICE AND DEFINITION

By the mid-1970s the practice of spreading education by correspondence over a distance had spread to most national communities in the world. There were, it could be assumed, at least some individuals in every country without exception, however handicapped the country, who followed correspondence courses. In fact, the more handicapped a country in material and educational resources, the more convenient the individual there might find the educational communication at a distance, although paradoxically the more "advanced" and educationally sophisticated a country the more uses were being found for adaptations and extensions of the method. The script for communicating is almost always the modern phonetic "Roman" alphabet, especially suitable for serving both the demands of the varied teaching styles and the needs of technical reproduction by machine. Courses of distance instruction and education can be found not only in German, French, Russian, Swedish and other European-based languages but also in Japanese, Arabic and African languages. English, largely for historical reasons, is the language most frequently used in courses studied outside as well as inside the countries of origin.

The steady development of the practice had, in many countries, taken the educational Establishment (the "accepted" experts) largely by surprise. Even in 1975 there were still undoubtedly very many working in traditional education who appeared to regard the very term "distance education" as either without meaning or else descriptive only of an ill-defined area of educational speculation. So the practice itself is still relatively new to many educationalists as a subject for serious research, and is admittedly still a focus for debate and prejudice. The strongest arguments in its favour are its practicability and its established use and growth today.

At this stage we must attempt, therefore, some definition for the terms which have been used here so far. A working definition for "*distance education*" must stress that it would include any planned and regular educational provision where there is a distance between teacher (or instructor or educator) on the one hand, and student (or learner or receptive audience) on the other hand. This must mean primarily a distance in place and a distance in time, whatever other interpretations, psychological or social, might be

thought to arise from the first two aspects of distance. "*Correspondence education*", or correspondence study, can then be defined simply as being "any organised provision for instruction and education through the post" [1] Dr. Holmberg[2] in his earlier publications stressed "teaching in writing" and *regular writings* between student and teacher. Dr. Peters[3] emphasised the regular exchange of *communications* between teacher and student, and the basic "specially prepared and methodically constructed" course. R. Erdos[4] refers to the teacher's responsbility for "imparting knowlege and skill" to a student who "is not being taught orally". While L. O. Edstrom[5] prefers, in this connections, to speak of "*self-instruction*" and individual help and guidance "not necessarily by mail". The latter seems to echo the American use of "Home study"[6] as an alternative word for correspondence study.

The strength, and the limitation, of "pure" correspondence education (if we can use such a term) is that it is based mainly on printed or duplicated material with supporting contact through written letters or exercises. From the beginning of the century there has grown a well-established practice of supplementing the correspondence by occassional lectures and classes, intermittent tutorial sessions, residential courses and finally, all the growing battery of available technical aids. These had for long included simple practice materials, slides, disc records, photographs and (later) telephone conversation, audio-tapes and other items which could be sent over a distance. Developing technology has gradually provided the activity with many powerful new allies in this work of teaching and learning, by communication over distance, by recording and storage, by calculation and by retrival for use. The most powerful new allies have undoubedly been the broadcasting services, radio and television. Under some circumstances broadcasting is capable of becoming not merely an aid, but the dominating factor in a "distance" system. Other allies, capable of much further development in the future, have been the (old-established) periodical press, the programmed computer, and (possibly) the teaching machine or programmed-learning book. Correspondence study is therefore, strictly speaking, a *part* of education "at a distance". It can be argued that it is an *essential* part of most forms (though not all) of the wider field of distance education. Practitioners are only recently beginning to use the latter term, distance education, as a useful alternative to and an extension of, the term correspondence study.

Distance education becomes potentially a major area of education, in contrast to and in possible rivalry to the more traditional fields such as

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[1] W.J.A. Harris, "*Education by Post*" in the Home Study Review, Vol 8/2, 1967.
[2] Dr. Bjorn Holmberg, "*On methods of teaching by correspondence*", Hermods, 1960.
[3] Dr. O. Peters, "*Der Ferunterricht*" (Correspondence teaching), Verlag Julius Beltz, 1965.
[4] R.F. Erdos, "*Teaching by correspondence*", Longmans, UNESCO, 1967.
[5] L.O. Estrom, "*in the Home Study Review*", Vol 8/1, 1967.
[6] "*Home Study Council*", in the U.S.A.

face-to-face teaching or the organising of non-directive group-learning situations. These approaches to learning are obviously not entirely distinct in nature nor are they each limited to exclusive use, and they may frequently be combined in their provision for some or all of the learners within a large target group. Different methods and different media may be judged particularly suitable for the learning of different subjects or the different parts (theory or practice) of the same overall subject or skill. Or else they may be suitable for different categories of learner (with different motivation or different learning background and experience). There has therefore developed the whole concept of *mixed method* and *multi-media systems* and of a planned *systems approach*. The concept has its special significance for distance education but is not exclusive to it. The theory, in a simplified form, is that the educator identifies his teaching *objectives*, *selects* the appropriate media and also the methods of using the media to reach these objectives — and *evaluates* the resulting system carefully before final use. Theoretically, this is an ideal in distance teaching where detailed preparation of and consultation on the teaching can possibly precede the application to the learner. In practice the real objectives in a "distance" situation must always be a broad compromise between teaching aims and learner expectations and the variable factors are even more numerous than in a face-to-face group. The media selection is more a matter of practical availability and allocation of media than of their suitability for precise teaching/learning tasks. A systems approach, like practical politics, is the art of the possible — enlightened by creative imagination.

Here in this handbook we are concerned with the institutions and with the methods of correspondence study. For many practical reasons we are not attempting to outline the immensely more complicated and more expensive organisation of *Broadcasting education*, by radio and television, with its studios, educational staff and techniques, and delivery systems. Yet broadcasting in some of its activities has every claim to be considered, too, as distance education with learning objectives in both the cognitive (knowledge) and effective (attitude changing) areas. Where there is a link between correspondence and broadcasting media, this has more often been a co-operation of correspondence method with radio rather than with the far more expensive trasmission and reception equipment of television. However it should be noted that broadcasting and correspondence are not closely comparable as media. Broadcasting is primarily transcient and is a *means of communicating*. Correspondence study uses the media of print and script and is more a whole *system* of durable learning materials and of student assignments. The capacity of broadcasting to teach is very limited without the use of print material (not necessarily mutual "correspondence"). On the other hand the correspondence course at its best can lead to much effective learning, whether with or without the use of technical media. The latter, the correspondence, is normally *central* to a distance education system, unless it

is largely replaced by occasions for more traditional non-distance teaching face-to-face.

Three simple reasons have persuaded both governments and non-official institutions to offer education at a distance, whether entirely dependent on sales-income from courses or else primarily or entirely non-commercial. First, it held a promise of *reaching out* to categories or groups of people who could not otherwise be reached by special education and training. These were often very large numbers of potential learners. Secondly, it promised *economies* (with proper planning) in its use of any resources, both material and human resources. Both reasons have a particular attraction for communities in societies which have severely limited material resources and also immense and increasing development problems. However to be truly helpful, and to avoid becoming merely a new and different manner of perpetuating old educational inefficiences at lower cost, the method has of course to be continually adapted and re-assessed, with full understanding of its principles, to meet local conditions and practices. This re-emphasises the *flexibility* promised by such a method. A third reason for the attraction of distance education in developing societies was therefore the possibility of such adjustment, without too long a delay between changes in educational policy and the translation from policy into immediate practice. There can be no blueprint for success — only models for guidance.

World practice in distance education today has been a result of trying to meet specific educational and social problems each in a particular local or national setting. Such problem-solving has meant identifying clearly the main problem, whether it is the poor quality or the small quantity of primary school teachers, or the inadequacy of available specialised technical and commercial skills, or the political and social desirability of wider general educational opportunity, or the need to persuade more people to improve national health habits. If it is a problem involving relatively large numbers of "learners" who have to be reached with some degree of urgency and if also the resources for its solution are severely limited, then there has often been a case for introducing some form of distance education. However the newer form of education has to function within a real-life situation of existing institutions, politics, geography, social conditions and economic practice. You start with what already exists. The result has been a wide variety of organisational and administrative patterns for institutions of distance education. A brief selection of examples can perhaps illustrate this point that there is a variety to be considered, of possible systems and combinations of distance education each as a compromise between the theoretical ideal and the practical realities.

Where there has been a decision taken, either by government or by private organisation to contribute to an educational solution through distance

education there have always been three decisions to take and these will all influence the system adopted. These are all decisions as to the nature of the problem to be solved, namely who are to be served (the exact target or clientele), what is the purpose of the new system, and for what level of learning is it intended. It is a mistake to assume that all distance education is necessarily only an extension of the formal system of examination study in general education. There are many other tasks that possibly only a distance approach can meet and which involve no scholastic examination. However a study of correspondence education intended to widen the opportunities for an *educated minority* to take *examinations* at *university level* can illustrate some of the alternative systems.

As many as six categories of organisation at this level are identified by El Bushra.[7] Each category, which we can label here as A, B, C, etc, has its equivalent at other levels and with other purposes. They are mainly variations on the distribution of four major responsibilities — the responsibility for the distance administration, for the actual teaching by correspondence, for the additional forms of teaching (including lecture, classroom or residential sessions), and for the evaluation of the learning (in these instances by examinations). The separation of teaching responsibilities from the evaluation provides one important form of check on the standards of education achieved, but may, it is argued, tend towards an over-rigid formalisation of teaching objectives. The separation of both from the administration may encourage unsuitable teaching styles. A division of responsibility for the basic correspondence work and for the "supplementary" teaching opportunities (including radio/television broadcasting) raises formidable problems of liaison, co-ordination of objectives and time-tabling. Considerations of sheer economy and limitation of resources may guide any authority towards one form or another in spite of these and other problems involved in each case, but it is prudent to be prepared for the latter.

The first category (A) of correspondence education institution deals entirely with external learners, and is both teaching and examining external students. Examples include the old-established University of South Africa and also the relatively new Open University of Britain. The second category (B1) only examines and does not teach for its examinations, as with the External degree department of the University of London. The actual teaching is then provided by independent colleges, and correspondence (B2) or "face-to-face", commercial or non-commercial, preparing individuals to sit for externally arranged examinations. This is the most common pattern of correspondence study in many parts of the world. Two out of many possible examples are Stamford College (Singapore) and the National Extension

[7] El Bushra *"Correspondence Teaching at Univerity"*, I.E.C. Broadsheet, 1973.

College (Britain). Frequently, the correspondence college may in addition teach for and examine a few qualifications of its own creation and normally of only limited scope. The third, fourth and fifth categories (C, D and E), are all in the form of correspondence units within a larger traditional face-to-face college or university and economising by sharing some of its services. The shared services may be related to teaching, administration or examining. Category C may enrol both internal and distance students, but will use internal teaching staff for tutoring and writing correspondence courses. Its course will be in one departmental discipline only. Category D may also enrol both internal and external students, using the internal staff from many teaching departments for teaching and examination, and for periods in each external course obliging the distance students to attend internally. Category E may enrol only external students but will employ its *own* distance teaching staff (who may also link with internal teaching departments for some teaching). Examples of category C are the University of the South Pacific (Fiji), School of Education, and the College of Estate Management, University of Reading (Britain). In category D the University of Zambia and the University of New England (Australia) are given (by El Bushra) as well-known examples. In category E, the special external teaching department in an 'internal' university, the University of Wisconsin extension department (U.S.A.) is one amongst several examples of traditional universities which regarded the spreading of degree opportunities to distant students as a major responsibility.

The sixth category (F), identified as universities providing correspondence education on a basis of co-operation with other universities and colleges, with industry and with broadcasting institutions, is really a wide variety of alternative solutions to organisational problems. In practice, adult departments such as the Institute of Adult Studies in the University of Dar-es-Salaam (Tanzania) have a correspondence section and take responsibility for planning and co-ordinating, with educational or administrative departments, the organisation of special projects of distance education at academic levels below university level. In Germany the co-operating bodies have included the broadcasting corporations, the Institute for distance study, the Folk High Schools (schools of adult education), the Universities and the Ministries of Education, with the broadcasting institutions often providing the initiative and the finance.

The above are categories of organisation of distance systems based on the allocation or distributtion of responsibility for the various main functions in an educational activity. An alternative way of classifying and recognising distance education is by the organisation controlling finance and policy. Here the definitions are simpler. In many countries (including New Zealand, Venezuela, Malawi and France) the direct or indirect initiation and control is with a central government ministry (such as Education or Labour) or with a ministry institute. In many others it is in a university (as in the U.S.A.,

Tanzania or Germany) where the initiative lies, or in any large college of higher education. The third alternative is the private or non-official organisation with funds coming mainly or entirely from private non-commercial sources, whether religious, or trade union, or party political or industrial. There are many examples in the U.S.A., Britain, the Ivory Coast or several countries in South America. A fourth alternative is the private organisation funded mainly from its fee income. These are to be found in very many countries and have at their best largely pioneered or supplemented the service in particular subjects and in geographical areas.

There are many cases where it has proved practical and economical for the community that these alternative forms have co-operated or else have existed efficiently alongside each other. With these existing variations in control of educational policy, and also in distribution of distance education functions, it is suggested here that correspondence units under any system must meet special common problems and can be adaptations on a basic model.

Most of the examples of actual correspondence education given above have been intended for a clientele in higher education with the purpose of examination study at university level. This is a misleading way to look at its current use and possibilities. Probably the most important developments in distance education have been in its use not for the small minority of potential graduates but for craftsmen in industry, for farmers, for special categories of community workers and for ordinary people (both literate and semi-literate). Even the illiterate and the semi-literate can be reached through a ground organisation of those who can read and through the audial and visual media. In a survey of nearly 30 African countries, Kabwasa and Kaunda[8] identified 16 courses where the clientele were under-qualified teachers, 10 where they were professional administrators and vocational workers, 9 where they were agricultural and co-operative work personnel, 7 for social workers and planners, 9 for "citizenship" and 4 for civil service training. This compared with only 10 courses aimed at post-secondary adult students and 9 at adults taking primary and secondary school examinations. In the former the correspondence course may take on rather a different style and form as the education is not intended for the passing of "public" examinations for general qualifications but for the learning of particular skills and the developing of special abilities or attitudes. Any testing or examination is more clearly seen as a subordinate part of the success of the teaching and learning, an evaluation of the course, rather than an evaluation of the individual learner.

Halfway between the "scholastic education" course and the in-training course, by distance study, is the technical training course for those already

[8]A. Kabwasa and M.M. Kaunda, *"Correspondence education in Africa"*, 1973.

working with mechanical tasks and industrial skills. This is sometimes a most effective form of apprenticeship training "on the job". Fakes [9], Dodds[10] and others give examples from Venezuela, Poland, France and New Zealand. The learner clientele, the subjects and the tutors will require a different style of course and of teaching language to link practice to theory. At the furthest end of the scale from the academic and scholastic course is the relatively short community campaign aimed, possibly with the help of broadcasting, at wide community "target" groups or at whole populations. A number of these are described by Dodds with case studies from India, Ghana, Mauritius and Tanzania. The World Education projects and Unicef schemes utilise mass media and distance techniques in a wide range of countries as diverse as Honduras, Indonesia, Turkey and the Philippines. Here the "target" learners are the illiterate, the semi-illiterate or newly-literate, the rural peasant or villager and those with little formal education. The objectives are frequently stated in such terms as family planning, functional education, improved health habits, and literacy. Print, correspondence course and writing must obviously take only a very minor role in such education projects and can only be directed through the field workers and the often very small minority of literates. The key to any degree of success in such campaigns, even where radio or visual media are used, is almost entirely with an effective field organisation of groups, group animators and visiting field workers.

The range of existing practice in distance education is even wider than the range in the formal educational field as it is being used extensively, if experimentally, even in the non-formal field of education. It could be claimed as an essential instrument in national development and an important supplement in individual education. It has been said that correspondence education can contribute to the learning of almost any subject or skill, whether vocational or recreational, practical or theoretical. The key to success must lie in the ability to arouse and to maintain the motivation to learn.

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[9] Fakes (ed), *"Technical education at a distance"*, Cambridge, I.E.C. 1973.
[10] T. Dodds, *"Multimedia approaches to rural education"*, Cambridge I.E.C. 1972.

Chaper III

PRACTICAL ANAYSIS OF CORRESPONDENCE TEACHING AND LEARNING

No handbook, however brief, on this form of education, could possibly afford to under-stress the importance of effective course writing, the importance also of necessary editing (or re-writing), of early course drafts, and the periodic revision of a published correspondence course. Anyone who has been involved with course writing or course editing will know that the final published course may take anything up to the tenth draft. Yet it is as difficult to be brief and also practical on this form of teaching in print (and in writing) as it is to be truly helpful on teaching by lecturing. As Erdos [1] comments "there is no *one* correct method of writing a correspondence course", as it must depend upon the circumstances and the purposes, which may vary considerably. In any and each circumstance it must depend upon the subject, the level of the subject, the recommended syllabus (if any), the kind of learners and their standards, and on how far there are available the "text books" or other printed (or broadcast) material on the subject or on the skill. It may vary in part, also, with the house-style of the college. However, there are some general observations which can be offered here on course writing — as reminders or as a focus for discussion about the practical management of writing.

Firstly, you need to decide whether the course would be referenced to recognised standard text books or whether they will not. The availability of text books may be the deciding factor in most cases. It must be remembered that text books are rarely written with the home study student in the author's mind. This fact often makes the "very best" text books unsuitable for correspondence study. The choice of text books is exceptionally important. Many correspondence students have in the past been expected to absorb and retain an endless stream of facts by rote-learning for endless hours. This is the principle that in practice destroys the student's desire for study and his motivation. However, there are some standard text books on a variety of subjects which if *supplemented by study notes* are suitable for home study.

[1] R.F. Erdos, *"Teaching by correspondence"*, Longmans, 1967.

It is the author's opinion that specially written "complete" courses for home study are ideal for most subjects and most treatments other than those at advanced levels of study. This method is, from a cost point of view, at a disadvantage if compared to courses linked to text books; but, in this way the course writer has a greater freedom to express his views in his own way and to teach without being tied to a text book and this should make the writing more digestible, interesting and easy to understand. A text book may be written for a non-adult reader and for a different culture, and so may prove quite unsuitable.

The style of writing should be as close to personal explanatory speech as the limitations of the subject and of subject level might allow. The vocabulary used, unlike that in many undoubtedly valuable text books, or authoritative volumes of reference reading, can be colloquial and conversational. The theorists of a particular subject may find this style difficult to adapt to — undoubtedly, however, it gives results. Yet because it is printed, visible, and intended for constant reference, it must be strictly accurate, absolutely clear in meaning and must also avoid (as an added hazard) verbosity or less purposeful comment. The language used should be grammatically correct but not to a pedantic level. Often a colloquial form of phraseology is the most effective form of example. The normal guidelines for writing styles simulating effective face-to-face teaching will need to be modifed considerably where the learner is an almost unknown quantity, isolated and helpless to intervene. In contrast, the writer of a "normal" book also is too often trying to lecture in writing and at considerable length to an unknown public, but this public will be one who is quite different from the specialised and painstaking learner student of the correspondence course. Writing a course in this context is an art to be learned largely by experience and not one that may come "naturally" without any practice, even to the well-trained class teacher.

Course Structure

The structure of a correspondence course may vary considerably but most courses will include some or all of the following methods or approaches. First a stimulating presentation of fact, analysis and explantion, the *exposition* of subject material. Secondly, as in any teaching class or tutorial, there is a further explanation and *reinforcement* and presentation of examples or case-studies, either directly or through reading outside the course. Thirdly, there is graphic and other *non-print material*, as visual aid to understanding. Nowadays this may possibly be closely allied to broadcast material, by radio and possibly by television, or to audio cassettes. Fourthly, there is a wide variety of instructions or invitations to the learner to further his understanding by *active participation and exercise* of his knowledge (at that stage of the course). This may in some areas of learning be through the

carrying out of simple experiments and the recording of observations, measurements and impressions. More commonly it is through frequent *tests, exercises and assignments* presented more as learning activity than as material for external assessment and marking. It is at this point that an extra element enters the "teaching/learning" scene in corrrespondence education; this is the *distance tutor* who marks, comments and teaches by correspondence. Equally commonly, in many kinds of courses, there is the *self-correction test* where the learner postpones looking at the answers provided until he has made his own attempt at the answers. A third form of test may be, in some colleges, both marked and/or commented on by computer calculation without the intervention of a human tutor, but this is still, at present, not a common practice.

The simpler forms of course may comprise only exposition, essay assignments and recommended text-book reading. To help the learner to pace, judge and organise his own learning progress the whole course will be divided into lessons or sections, the equivalent of the one-hour or fifty-minute lesson in a face-to-face situation, but (with the different time scale and conditions of home study) normally measured out by the expected capacity for part-time study during perhaps a one to three week period. This, as with a face-to-face class, will be determined also by the length of study judged necessary to teach or study adequately a particular sub-section of the subject. Correspondence courses will vary enormously in the number of lessons or sections into which they are divided, which can be as few as six or as many as forty. Normally, each lesson will end with an instruction for student activity or for an assignment to be returned to the college for comment.

Before the actual course writing starts, there must be a definite plan of the course which links study material (in quantity and subject matter) to a study schedule. This gives the writer a good guide as to the subject matter to be covered, related to the space availability — breaking the subject down into sectionalised study units. The actual choice of media for the course, for example, printed matter, records or cassettes and whether the course will be linked to television or radio broadcasts, may depend largely upon circumstances, for example, the availability to the student of text books, record players, cassette recorders and radio or television broadcasts. The course when structured and scheduled and the subject matter designed and sectionalised, will then be ready to be written.

Course Writing

Courses may be prepared and drafted either by full-time staff or by specially engaged part-time staff who know the subject. Frequently teachers are chosen for course writers because there are so few experienced correspondence course writers on particular subjects. Sometimes the writer

chosen for a particular course may know the subject well through practice (e.g. in accountancy, law or engineering) and *not* through classroom teaching. However a teacher's experience of classroom problems may of course be an invaluable help while course writing. A schedule needs to be drawn up so that the course writer and the institution can co-ordinate the course writing progress. The course writer should be thoroughly briefed if he/she is not already experienced in this work, on the following points; he needs to prepare - - -

a) a detailed synopsis of the course sectionalised into study units.

b) the ideal visual layout for the course (this will be covered in more detail later in this chapter under the sub-heading Technical Considerations).

c) an introduction for each new subject — so that the student is left in no doubt about what he is studying.

d) many examples of a particular theory or concept.

e) also, practical exercises in the text which will help to break up drawn out factual pieces of the text.

f) the use of visual aids wherever practical and necessary. These aids will help to reinforce the concept being studied and can take the form of illustrations, charts or graphs.

g) self-test questions periodically during the course and finally a written assignment at the end of each sectionalised study unit.

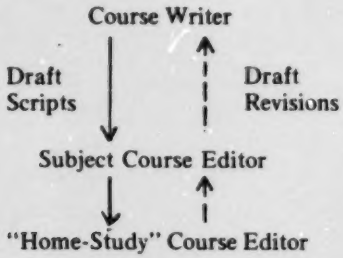
h) Finally, the course writer should be given an independence of writing so that he can express himself creatively and imaginatively. He should be allowed to express himself in a personalised style, but a style that is both confident and authoritative. Short sentences and simple language will help to achieve this. Paragraphs of mixed length are valuable for visual reasons. Obviously, the type of style must suit the seriousness of the subject matter, and it must be suitable for the home study student.

Every course writer, before starting to write a correspondence course should consider in some depth the home study student's problems; for example, the conditions he may work in; the isolation; the lack of motivating force (the teacher in a face-to-face situation); and the problems of assimilating the new subject without the facility to ask questions.

THE COURSE EDITOR

The relationship between the course writer and the course editor could be the key to the success of the finished course. The course editor is in an invidious

position. He is expected to comment upon the performance of an expert on a subject on which he may not be an expert. There have been several theories expressed about the role of the course editor. It is the author's opinion that the following system works well in practice.



Rather than having one course editor, there should be two for each course. The first an expert in the subject matter, the second an experienced home-study course specialist. The first is particularly responsible for the correctness of the theory of the subject matter. The second is particularly responsible for the suitability of the presentation of the subject matter for home study. The two course editors will consult and agree amendments etc. Then the technical course editor will consult with the course writer for suitable amendments. In this way, the course writer and the home study course editor are not brought into direct contact, which can in practice, impede progress on course writing, as both have differing views on the suitability or presentation of the subject matter.

Technical Considerations

A correspondence course should first and foremost be appealing to the student. A good example of this are the lengths the Open University in the U.K. go to designing and producing the illustrated front covers of their study manuals. A well-presented and interesting looking study manual will create the initial desire in the student to study it. Each study manual should be suitably titled as to subject matter. It should be properly referenced to page numbers, as is any good text book. Both these points seem obvious, but there are many examples of courses that fail in this respect. The layout of each page of the study manual should be along the following lines:-

a) Varied lengths of paragraphs (some quite short) with suitable and frequent sub-headings.

b) Visual aids where possible.

c) Listing technique used if necessary, this breaks up the text — and is an advantage to the student when revising.

The choice of type of printing (whether type set or litho) is not important. Whichever is the most convenient for the institution will be suitable. But clarity and size of type are important. The type size should be approximately 10 point (never smaller) and should be bold (not spidery) — remember a student has to read the study manual for at least one hour each day and five days a week — eye strain is definitely an adverse factor for the student's motivation!

All these factors help to explain, emphasise and reinforce the subject matter.

Before concluding this chapter on "The practical analysis of correspondence teaching and learning" let us consider course writing from a student's point of view. Consider this question "How does a student study?" In an analagous way a car manufacturer will ask a similar question. The essential difference is that the car manufacturer assumes the buyer — in our analogy the student — will know how to drive. This is an assumption (i.e. that the learner knows how to study) that no correspondence institution can make. The vast majority of "new" study students may not know how to study. In fact, the majority of "new home study students" know little or nothing about home study, so they are starting blind — not knowing how to operate the controls; but they have a fair idea of the direction they would like to go, though they are in need of guidance. As a result, the student needs a positive start; as does the institution. The first few hours of home study are vital. During these few hours the student will be self-critical and analytical; so that his motivation and confidence are not impaired, a smooth start is necessary. The authors subscribe to the following theory which may help to illustrate this point. A student's motivation reaches a peak at the time he actually decides to go ahead and enrol with a home study course. Never again does the student quite reach this peak of motivation. The second peak of motivation (perhaps somewhat lower than the first peak) is attained when the student receives his course materials. From this point the motivation may reduce progressively during his studies — one of the many reasons for student drop-outs. As a result, this phenomena impels a correspondence institution to two courses of action. The first is to send the student's course materials to him as soon as possible after he has decided to enrol — the first peak. The longer the time gap between decision and the receipt of study materials, the greater the fall-off in motivation. The build-up in motivation at the second peak can be achieved by the student's smooth start to his studies. This is the second form of action, a first lesson that includes material to help the learner to grasp the nature of his new studies and to begin to assess his own capabilities.

Whatever form the course takes, it is essential that the student is taken through the first few steps of his studies one at a time. Instruction at this stage should be clear, concise and simple, leading the student onwards. It is

essential that the student is not inundated with numerous books, booklets or leaflets as this will only overwhelm and confuse the student, detracting from the main objective of the course. The information given to the student at this stage should be specific to *that* course. To present material of a general nature so that the same material can be used for several courses, is likely to prove a false economy.

HOW TO STUDY

It cannot be assumed that the student knows how to study on his own. As a result he might be advised in some detail. It is recommended that at the start of each course a detailed, concise, instructional leaflet relevant to that course should be made available to the student. This should suggest the best method of studying, pointing out the necessity for consistent work and application, the method and the timing of assignments, and perhaps detailing exactly what the student studies and when. In this booklet the "mechanics" of the course should be laid out in a simple way so that there can be a minimum of confusion for the student. It is at this point, that a student is told exactly what his study programme is and which sectionalised study units he studies.

The writer must imagine himself or herself, as far as possible, in the position of the student. What is in a study leaflet will therefore depend on the kind of student for whom the course is intended (and on his expectations and cultural habits). It will of course, vary with the nature and level of the course, and certain courses of a non-scholastic type might not need any special study counselling. If a course demands much *reading* of supplementary texts and browsing through local libraries it is helpful to give some suggestions on how "to tackle a text book" or "how to read better and faster".[2] With some courses "clearly you haven't time to read everying"[2] and this will be particularly true of a higher level academic course. Rowntree suggests the "S.Q. 3R" approach, or Survey, Question, Read, Recall and Review. This is probably helpful to many in suggesting a planned methodical approach to study; but it may not be suitable to some individuals (who may feel they know themselves better) or to studies below Open University level. Study method is sometimes a very individual and personal matter — but only when a learner is willing to give real thought to developing his own habit of active unsupervised study.

Expressing oneself in *writing* is the main, though not the only learner activity and feedback in most courses by correspondence. So learning how to express adequately ideas in writing is a major hurdle to overcome, particularly for an

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[2] D. Rowntree *"Learn to Study"*, MacDonald, 1970.

adult student long unused to practising the writing skills he/she learnt perhaps at school. At higher levels this may mean the writing of good essays and the planning and arrangement of essay material.

The making of notes, notes helpful to oneself, from books or from articles or from audio tapes or from observations, is not always an easy matter. It is part of the process of digesting learning, but unlike digestion of food it does not normally develop automatically or subconsciously. The advice of others can be adapted to one's own personal needs.

Yet all this study advice, advice which is offered initially as a matter of theory, should perhaps not be overstressed at the beginning of a course in case it dampens the enthusiasm of the new home-student. Much of this advice on study can be reinforced later in the course by the distance tutor, student advisor or marker (examiner).

THE DISTANCE TUTOR

The *distance tutor* is the personal tutor allocated to a group of correspondence learners to bring into the teaching the more personal element which is to a great extent absent in a "pre-packaged" course. There are several different and contrasting traditions in correspondence education in the role or in the practice of this figure, with certain kinds of course or of course objective (such as with revision or with some forms of in-service training) it is possible to dispense with the tutorial element. The different traditions are reflected in the alternative labels given by different colleges or units, in different countries, to someone who is basically a study counsellor. These titles include "marker" and "examiner" and "instructor".

If the "marker" or "examiner" is concerned mainly with the evaluating of student work, either in order to stimulate and help the learner to assess his/her own progress, or for a final assessment of student performance on the course, he might also be expected to give instruction to the student. Sometimes the marker is expected only to pronounce a bare judgement and to allocate a mark. The study advice and detailed commentary is then left as the duty of the study counsellor or student advisor. In courses dealing with skills which are largely practical, the place of the latter "teacher" may be taken by the foreman or office supervisor at work. In more scholastic courses it is strongly recommended that where there cannot be any local (face-to-face) group teacher nor local supervisor for correspondence education there should be a system of individual tutoring "at a distance", by letter or by "tutor's comment forms" or by written sentences on the student essay or answer-form. In some countries this tutorial comment may be by audio-cassette or by telephone.

The markers, with only limited tutorial duties or none, are usually part-time employees, and can be recruited locally to economise on postage and travel costs, but they can (in a country with good communications) be living at a distance from the college to which the student work is sent. The distance tutor, with the opportunity for full personal guidance of the student by correspondence, is often (in the early days of a new course) one of the full-time staff and may be a course writer or editor or tutorial supervisor. As course students become more numerous, the tutors may be employed part-time and may be recuited for this purpose from amongst suitable teachers, ex-teachers, specialist professionals, (not teachers) or other educated people judged to be suitable. The practice varies in different countries and in different colleges. It may seem obvious that such tutors should be sympathetic to the isolated learner, should know the subject well and should also be able to teach through well-expressed, brief comments on paper. This is a special skill to be learnt by experience.

Many colleges issue a pamphlet or handbook to guide and to advise their part-time tutors, or arrange interviews for new tutors with the tutorial supervisors. Some will arrange conferences and shorter meetings for tutors, to co-ordinate, stimulate and improve such tutorial service. To summarise the complex nature of the tutorial role where a full tutorial system is operated, the tutor should be:-

a) "a supervisor or counsellor for the do-it-yourself learner", also

b) "an assistant for the course writer", interpreting the course to the individual

c) and "a full partner in the educational process", with a positive and independent contribution to make to the teaching.

As with class teaching, every good tutor will develop his own individual style. The distance tutor is "the voice and the personality of the correspondence method", and "it is primarily on the tutor that the method ultimately depends for its efficiency and its humanity" [3] The course is written for *all* students who *may* be taking the course in the future, while the tutor is writing to the individual who has actually enrolled.

Perhaps it is misleading to think of the different elements of a correspondence method in isolation from each other. The writer (or writers) of a course, the course editor, the illustrators and the tutor are all part of a system, at their best all working together as a teaching team. A wider, and possibly more accurate way of looking at the technique of correspondence

[3] W.J.A. Harris "*The Distance Tutor*", Manchester Monographs 3, 1975.

education is to regard it from the learning end; the final product and objective. Then the student also becomes a potential partner and contributor in the process, as the home-learner and, to some extent, as self-teacher. Perraton[4] stresses the importance of student activity (and the stimulation of student active participation). He distinguishes no fewer than five functions for the student worksheet — in which both tutor and prepared course play a part. He suggests that these should first "help learning", secondly they "build up a dialogue", thirdly they "check the student's progress" for the tutor. As a fourth and fifth function the worksheets "ought to encourage the student" and "provide the tutor and the course writer with feedback on the course itself".

Overall planning of a course using correspondence and other distance media will, like the planning of any educational activity, necessitate giving careful thought to the objectives of the course. These, as Perraton stresses "are likely to be narrower and more specific than the needs it serves". Until the course objectives are clarified, and until the available resources (in other media, in numbers of tutors, and in experienced personnel) are surveyed, there is no criterion to guide the college in the detailed construction of its lessons and techniques. It is this imperative, to prepare and to test in advance the details and the whole sequence of teaching, and to try to anticipate the learning response, that is the particular distinguishing element of all distance education.

[4] H. Perraton *"The Techniques of Writing Correspondence Courses"*, International Extension College, 1973.

Chapter IV

RADIO-CORRESPONDENCE IN MULTI-MEDIA SYSTEMS

The linking of radio to correspondence courses raises a number of educational and organisational problems as to when the link-up could be valuable and how the role of each medium should be allocated. Fortunately, given the broadcasting station and studio, the cost per radio broadcast and of the transistor receiver is at least relatively low, and is low enough to allow for innumerable experiments in practical use and in educational effectiveness. However the need to avoid extravagant expectations from this link-up is all the more obvious when one has had any experience at all of technical obstacles of radio transmission or reception, of breakdown and absence of repair facilities, of unpredictable material conditions (sound interference, dust, echo, sound volume, storage), or of social and individual capacity to learn by radio. There is a difficulty for many people of concentration on sound communication alone, of time punctuality, of distraction by other sound, of the limited ability for many to learn by hearing unaided by sight. Radio itself is a passing *sound*, ephemeral, and unable by itself to help judge when to repeat communication for the inattentive, or for the distracted or for the slower thinking — which is every hearer at some stage in the broadcasting. The sound tape, which can record and hold the passing moment if it is operated efficiently, meets some of these problems, but only sometimes. However great the potential of the radio medium to reach far and to enter intrusively into any classroom or household or hall, it is prudent not to exaggerate or to misunderstand its role in education.

However there must be a role for the radio medium both in more formal scholastic learning and (possibly an even wider role) in non-formal education. The radio today is a versatile and familiar "personality" in societies as different as the urban university campus and the isolated nomad desert household. It is at different times entertainer, teacher and everyone's friend. It is a powerful ally for correspondence education if the unseen listener audience can be realistically estimated and understood.

The greatest limitation to radio in education is that only if the listener is willing to listen and able to listen with constant and close attention and understanding is it able to communicate. A further limitation is that communication, even with full understanding, is only part of the process of learning and of education. Without practical use and application of that

communication there will have been only a little learning achieved. Radio is severely limited in its capacity to rouse the learner to such an active role or to guide the activity itself. The problems of radio education are therefore transcience, uneven listening and attention, and passive hearing. What then can radio contribute to distance education? Yet the problems are much nearer to solution when radio can be combined with planned print or script in the form of suitably constructed correspondence courses. The correspondence element can provide the durability, the visual element and a much larger capacity for stimulating to active learner participation.

In his study of "multi-media approaches to rural education" Dodds[1] notes that radio has a special power to stimulate imagination and interest, in addition to its advantages of cheapness and its non-literate appeal. In another study (unpublished) on "Linked radio and correspondence courses for adult education" Valdivia[2] postulates as many as twelve uses to which radio has been put in such links. Of the twelve uses she suggests it is of course difficult to identify uses which do not overlap into one another, but it is possible to recognise three general purposes which these needs have tried to serve. The first are related primarily to the *teaching* of a subject or skill. The second group relate to the problems of the *learning* and to the adapting of a course to its reception by particular kinds of listeners whether as individuals or as groups. The third are a more general set of uses for radio, such as course publicity, course instructions and administration and are mainly related to *information*. In this third group of uses the radio can serve as both newspaper and loudspeaker and its immediacy and flexibility are given full scope with little time lost between new policy decision and its application. Modifying Valdivia's twelve possible uses of radio, its immediate teaching uses are through *direct academic lecture* (effective mainly for the highly committed learner only), through *independent teaching* (replacing a classroom teacher), through *verbal interpretation* or extension of the correspondence text and diagrams, through documentary material and *dramatised case studies*, through *verbal recall* or part-duplication of the correspondence course material, and through presenting examples *illustrating theory*. To the six uses above could be added radio for enrichment not already included in the uses already described, but perhaps to be labelled *general subject enrichment*. An example of this might be, in a science course, an interesting personal observation of a relevant event in everyday nature.

The second group, of learner-oriented uses, would include radio for correction of student work submitted, for conversational *tutorial discussion* of subject problems arising from course exercises, for material aimed directly

[1] T. Dodds, "Multimedia approaches to rural education", Cambridge, I.E.C., 1972
[2] M. Valdivia, "Linked radio and correspondence courses for adult education," unpublished M. Ed. thesis (Manchester), 1974.

at the meeting of personal *learning and study problems*, for stressing *student participation* and the learner voice, for *question-and-answer panels* of teachers and experts answering listeners' questions, and for general *encouragement* of learning effort and morale. The emphasis in this second group of uses is on developing the learner's feeling of involvement, a recognition that the most important aim of a course to a learner is not even the subject or skill itself but his or her own understanding of the course. Here the element of intimacy in the radio medium, when used at its best, can by inflection and variety of voice and audible human contact sustain motivation to learn in a way which is not possible even for the most personally styled printed course.

The third group, of general information uses for radio, is more familiar to the public, though here the news and the information is directed entirely towards educational objectives and to helping the study course. This is largely a matter of one-way communication from a regional or national centre to a public audience. *Instructions* can be sent to group or district organisers as well as to learners in general. *Facts and publicity* about a course, about regional meetings, about modified arrangements and decisions and about interim progress reports can be gathered, improvised to new situations and sent out at short notice. These uses can include short-term *notices* of additional appeals or extra facilities and assistance offered to learners. The whole of the public side of a distance education project becomes a little less difficult to organise and to maintain with an instantaneous communicating and inter-communication system such as radio.

With this analysis of sixteen different uses for radio it will be obvious that they are difficult to separate precisely, and there may be much apparent overlap of purpose between one use and another. In many cases of combined use of radio and correspondence the former, the radio, may be much under-used for many reasons. These reasons may include unsuitable and limited human and material resources or difficult local conditions. In some instances the main learner-contact and initiative may on the other hand be taken by the radio rather than by the correspondence/print element. This may be particularly so where the main purpose is group attitude-change, such as innovation in rural or other tradition-bound societies. The correspondence contribution may then be only in a very simplified form, possibly little more than a series of short pamphlets intended to inform and summarise. It may be (in a sense) relegated to providing some regular or irregular support to the broadcasts rather than to teaching a specific subject or skill. In such cases it is clear from examples given by Dodds and by reports from a number of international educational aid agencies[3] that the

[3]For example U.N.I.C.E.F., and World Education (U.S.A.).

local ground organisation of "field" workers, whether unpaid or paid, is absolutely essential to prepare and to assist the learning. Groups hear and discuss the broadcasts. The groups may be traditional, existing originally for a different purpose, or specially gathered, or both. This will mean selection and preparation of group leaders and supervisors. Even where there is a field organisation of classes, groups, forums or clubs, with local leaders and with visiting advisors, supervisors and organisers, there is "no captive audience". Depending on the target audience the radio must, in some way suitable to the subject and to the learner, entertain as well as teach.

There are many examples of radio-correspondence projects and courses from which to select, and from these it can be seen how the use of radio in this connection has varied. The actual radio programmes have in some countries (as in Germany) been as long as sixty minutes, but it is more normally from four to five minutes to thirty minutes with one or two repeat programmes each week. With fifteen to twenty minutes as an average length it is apparently accepted that listeners anywhere find difficulty in concentrating close attention for much longer than that on a speaking box. Radio programmes have to be brief and selective in their educational material, as some of that time of each will be taken up by the need to identify and introduce the programme (by sound alone) and by the need for some repetition of vocal teaching points and of facts. In courses aimed at farmers and fishermen in Ghana the radio has been used variously for *drama*, *question forums* and popular *magazine programmes* (very short and mixed items in rapid sequence). In Germany the Quadriga-Distance Colleges[4] concentrate mainly on *lectures* "mixed with questions to be answered and illustrative scenes of pedagogical situations to be analysed and discussed".

The Tanzanian projects have used the radio for *broadcast publicity*, for drama excerpts, for public *exhortation* and for question-times. In Wisconsin, U.S.A. the broadcast element is *primarily informative* on the correspondence courses. In Maharashtra, India the radio is aimed at the population in rural villages and is concerned mainly with forums for answering questions on daily work and activities. The urban radio clubs in Niger appear to provide opportunities for *listener participation* on the air, expressed through locally taped extracts, while specialist speakers give answers to local queries. The rural "radio schools" in Honduras, Central America are, so it is claimed, "teaching by radio" with listeners waiting with pads and pencils to take notes on the radio lessons. In all cases recorded there appear to be links with study guides, printed lessons, study letters, booklets for short courses, or (possibly) textbooks. A strict definition of correspondence education might more accurately not accept all of these as more than print support.

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[4] T.R.U. Commission Report: "Distance Education", Stockholm, 1975.

In combining radio with correspondence courses there must obviously be close co-ordination between those reponsible for these two very different media. With the probability of different kinds of personal experience and training behind the individuals directing the radio scripting and production and those planning correspondence courses there are likely to be differences in their view of the educational objectives and methods of a course or project.

In all distance teaching there is bound to be some form of "team teaching", or more than one individual responsible for any one of the different kinds of teaching media. Nowhere is this likely to be more apparent than in even the simplest forms of mixed media approach where the development of a co-operating team, with suitable consultation patterns and procedure, may be an essential element in the course. Early thought needs to be given to such preparation patterns, adapted later in the light of local experience. The Open University in Britain has accumulated notable expertise in the organisation and use of course-teams suitable for its own particular level of teaching. Even with radio and print alone and without the wealth of television and other possible media available to the O.U. there are at least two possible forms of combination between the two media, and a course team approach may be advisable.

The first form, one which is adopted most frequently because of its relative simplicity, is for there to be virtually two semi-independent courses within each course. Each would work towards an agreed end but through its own media and in its own way. The radio could provide for those parts of a subject where sound input and topicality and the use of immediate feedback from learners are essential or desirable. The correspondence course would concentrate on as full a printed presentation of the subject as was possible, and may perhaps make no reference at all to the radio element. The radio would be regarded as being not absolutely indispensable to studies, even though desirable, and the learner who misses broadcasts or is quite unable to receive them is encouraged to regard himself as being not too greatly disadvantaged by his lack of some of the radio contributions. Or the radio may offer its optional extra programmes to maintain interest and to give encouragement to study, but may not otherwise note which points are reached in the course by each learner. The alternatives in the first form are therefore that the radio part is an optional sub-course, with its own independent sequence; or that it is instead a main course, though with the correspondence and print giving perhaps a most important support to the radio; or thirdly that the radio is not in the form of a course at all but entirely designed to provide irregular comment and support to the correspondence material.

The second form of radio-correspondence link is where the two media are closely integrated in use, each attempting to contribute in a way which

develops the special strengths of the media. Sometimes they may supplement and re-inforce each other on parts of a subject, repeating sections in a different manner to help learning or to suit different individual capacities to learn better through spoken explanation or through reading. Sometimes certain parts of a subject, such as pronunciation or musical illustration or verbal drills or sounds recognition can obviously be discussed more effectively through speech and the hearing than through reading and writing. This must mean a far more closely planned course and production, and presents special problems when dealing with media with different production times, and with students scattered over a wide area and with differing study motivation and habits. A study of a mixed media course undertaken by the N.E.C. (Britain) in 1967[5] illustrates well these difficulties of co-ordination when a particular part of a correspondence course must coincide with a particular radio programme, or must at least be not too far separated in timing to lose some of its meaning for the student. The writing of the much longer and more 'permanent' correspondence course may take very many months while the radio script (like a conversation) may be put together in a short time and can be sensitive to current audience-feedback and to topical needs during the course itself. The printed script may stay unchanged for two or more years until stocks are exhausted, although revision may be desirable. The answer in a given situation is likely to be a compromise between the two forms of organisation, and a compromise between or a combination of the alternative uses possible in the first form.

The deciding factors, in addition to simple availability of media, will probably be the kind of students/learners whom the system is meant to serve. If the students are fairly homogeneous in their age, strength of motivation and ability, and are living in a few urban areas it may be possible to recommend a greater discipline of listening and of reading study and to combine this with frequent face-to-face tutorials or residential sessions, but this reduces the advantages and the more positive contributions of distance teaching itself. Where economic conditions allow, the radio element may be provided also through audio-cassettes, sent to groups (which is cheaper) or to individuals (in home study).

This chapter is a brief review of the practice of radio use with correspondence. It does however raise the important question in distance education of group-study versus individual-study (the normal form of home study). Group study, either with or without a local teacher present, does contribute for the learner, the encouragement of sharing in a semi-social activity. Whether the group is a formal study class or a very informal gathering, listening partly for entertainment, the radio or audio-cassette is

[5]E. G. Wedell and H. D. Perraton, "Teaching at a distance," N.I.A.E., 1968.

probably more likely than print material to be stimulating to discussion and to shared understanding of what is heard. What is missed by one listener in a group is likely to be heard by another. Whether the group stimulation is by spoken word or by written word the discussion may well be the real key to the more permanent learning. The class teacher (if the group is a formal class) or the group leader (where there is some form of forum or discussion group) needs therefore guidance in the best use by the group, of the radio-correspondence contribution. The guidance can be given through the radio (or radio-cassette) or through the printed material. The guiding principles must be the expectations, customs and free agreement of the group members themselves.

The *organisation* of the radio input or the radio unit itself in a radio correspondence presentation will present many unique and distinctive problems. It will need to be integrated into or synchronised with the correspondence unit. In some cases the radio element is a contribution "in its own right" from a broadcasting institution which has other functions and duties, activities quite distinct from its mainly educational contributions. In that case there may be a local tradition of an educational division in the broadcasting institution and the division will both have its liaison machinery with the college and its links with its own technical and production staff and outside utilisation (or organising). Its print-support staff, for preparing pamphlets and brochures to publicise or to amplify its broadcasts, may be distinct from the correspondence courses although sometimes directed at a parallel educational objective (the general listener rather than the course student). This may well be a fully justifiable use of scarce (broadcasting) resources, as for instance in several countries in East Africa. It can, and sometimes does, lead to a lack of co-ordination and confusion of purpose, with possibly a loss of effectiveness in the more precisely planned scholastic study course.

In a CEDO Report on a specific eastern African correspondence unit, Edington [6] makes a strong plea for the radio unit, in those particular circumstances, to be integrated *within* the correspondence "college". The radio section for correspondence study should, it is argued, be organised under a "deputy director" with its own staff of scriptwriters, producers and editors (for broadcast and for "support" material), its field and evaluation liaison officers (for immediate feedback), and studio operators. In this way the mixture of correspondence course, support-graphics or print, and radio can aim to become a corporate multi-media system instead of a patchwork of educational inputs.

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[6] E.B. Edington, *"Schools Broadcasting in..."* (A report of an Evaluation Study) — British Council, London. *Not available for general public use.

Chapter V

COLLEGE PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION
(a model of a medium-sized correspondence unit or college)

The correspondence unit, division or institute is a college without walls, an open college. However, its staffing, administrative system, accommodation and general organisation give it its real educational identity and shape. In some ways the apparent and outward form of a correspondence college is more like that of a commercial business concern than that of a traditional school, college or university. With a relatively small full-time staff (whether educational or administrative managerial) and a large part-time staff (mainly educational) its way of working has at least as much to learn from management theory as from the classroom. The clients, the students and other learners, are outside —and are, by any measurement, very numerous. What follows is generally true even in those cases where there is some form of link with face-to-face teaching or with broadcasting which will have their own distinctive planning and management problems. Here, therefore, we are concerned with such matters as location, staffing, decision-making and finance.

Where will the college be located?

The geograpical location of the institution may depend upon several factors. These must include:-

The nature of the institution —whether it be independent or a dependent branch of the education establishment, for example, a government department or university or college department.

The availability and cost of accommodation. It may be that the college is centralised in one unit or decentralised in several units. Due to the nature of the institution a centralised unit would appear to be favoured by most institutions, but geographical, political or other considerations may suggest some decentralisation.

The accessibility and attractiveness of the location, and the accommodation, to prospective students and members of staff.

Accessibility to good postal and telephone communication will also be vital.

It may be intended that the teaching will take the form of combined home study and face-to-face —in this case the institution must be easily accessible to students; as are most educational establishments. The location of the institution must also be accessible for full-time and part-time managerial and clerical staff. Managerial staff may not hold the location of the institution high on their list of priorities —however, clerical workers probably will.

The actual choice of the site will be to a great extent, dictated by circumstances. The choice may be limited or there may of course be no choice at all.

Increasing emphasis is being placed today on using a combination of teaching methods [1], in order to achieve the best results so that it is a good thing to bring correspondence teaching out of its traditional isolation. This makes the accessibility of the institution increasingly more important.

However, the traditional institution can still be isolated, *provided* that it can nevertheless attract the employees it will require for staff. This isolation may mean that savings can be made if the institution is placed far from expensive city centres or built-up conurbations.

What kind of Accommodation is advisable?

The choice of office accommodation and its layout are directly linked to future administrative efficiency. At an early stage in the institution's development the first "battle" towards achieving the degree of the administrative efficiency needed can be won — by locating and moving the institution into bright, suitably cooled (or heated) reasonably-sized, "open-plan" offices.

Human beings work better under comfortable and attractive conditions — ask any personnel manager — drab offices usually mean drab staff, bright offices often mean bright staff. A desirable working atmosphere for the staff is not a luxury but a necessity.

The next factor to be taken into account is the size of the offices. There are several ways of estimating the size required. A very crude guide is that the institution will need 1,000 square feet (appr 93 square metres) per 1,000

[1] R. Erdos, *"Establishing an institution teaching by correspondence"*, 1975.

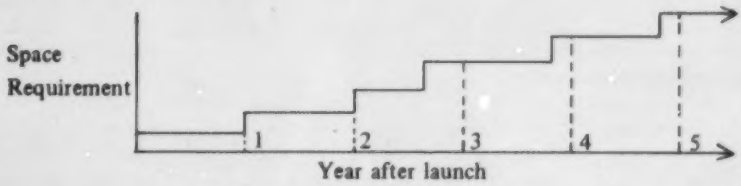
students. But obviously, this guide in some instances will be utterly unreliable. Another method of estimating the size required is to base your calculation on the number of employees, remembering that management staff require approximately twice the space per individual as do clerical staff. The following illustrates this method.

Let's assume the development plan for the institution for the number of students in the first five years is as follows:-

YEAR	NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER ANNUM
1st	1,000
2nd	2,500
3rd	5,000
4th	7,500
5th	10,000

During the five years, managerial and clerical staff will be employed as and when the college requires them. These individuals will be employed at intervals and so the size requirements will increase gradually "in steps" from day 1 of year 1 to day 365 of year 5.

Graph illustrating the size requirement of the institution over the first five years.



Over the five year period the work volume can be forecast approximately from the original development plan of the number of students. From these volumes the number of clerical workers can be forecast.

Let us assume that each manager will require 200 square feet and each clerical worker 100 square feet, although this may be excessive in the view of some communites. ($1m^2 = 10.8$ sq. ft.)

YEAR	MANAGERIAL (Nos. at year end)	clerical	space requirement (Sq. feet)	
1	5 persons	12 persons	2,200	(204 m²)
2	7 persons	20 persons	3,400	(315 m²)
3	9 persons	27 persons	4,500	(418 m²)
4	12 persons	42 persons	6,600	(613 m²)
5	14 persons	57 persons	8,500	(790 m²)

Even though the space requirement will increase in steps as previously described, the space requirement from the beginning to the end of each year will vary. This is illustrated as follows:-

YEAR	STUDENTS	space requirement (Sq. feet)
1	1000-1800	1,000 to 2,200 (204 m²)
2	2500-3600	2,200 to 3,400 (315 m²)
3	5000 approx.	3,400 to 4,500 (418 m²)
4	7,500-9500	4,500 to 6,600 (613 m²)
5	10,000 upwards.	6,600 to 8,500 (790 m²)

Whatever the basis of calculation of the space requirement, try to make sure that during the formative years the institution does not have to be rehoused into new offices if the available space runs out. The distruptions caused by moving always harm administrative efficiency and disrupt students' studies.[2]

The type of office layout chosen by the institution is very often dictated to them by the type of premises they occupy. A correspondence education institution is best suited to an "open-plan" layout considering the administrative functions. The most suitable layout should be found by monitoring work flow, between the institution and the student, and inter-departmentally at the institution. (Now refer to the diagram below). It will be noted that the prospect's enquiry flow and student's enrolment work flow are very similar. So are the work flow of students' letters and of exams despatched. By monitoring work flow in this way, it is possible to establish the work volumes that flow through each department per week. For example, if the institution receives 1,000 enquires in one week, then 1,000 enquiries will go through the recording department and 1,000 enquiries will require typing and 1,000 enquiries will be despatched. Likewise, 1,000 sets of promotional materials will be taken out of stock for desptach.

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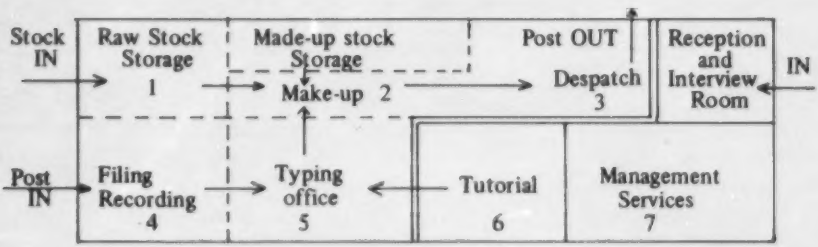
[2] It is very difficult to assess accurately the space requirements of a college. The space/employee method is of course crude, and is intended only as a rough guide.

WORK FLOW OF AN INSTITUTION

Student	Institution					
	Exams Marking	Student Advisory	Records	Despatch	Printing	Writing
Enquiry ?			→ ?	→ ?	← ?	← ?
Enrolement √			→ √	→ √	← √	← √
Student Letters L		L ←	→ L	→ L		
Examination Papers X	X ←		→ X	→ X		

What kind of open-plan office layout is advisable?

The diagram following illustrates an open-plan office layout based on the institution housed on one floor.



The areas numbers 1 to 5 comprise the open-plan general office, the functions and activities in each area are as follows:-

Area 1 — Storage

Receipt of course and promotional materials, if internally printed or produced from the printing section; if externally printed, from the printers.

The materials should be suitably stored, on stock racks. The storage area can be sectionalised into promotional and course materials, so that the identification and location of individual items is eased. *A well-planned storage department will help to eradicate the despatch of wrong materials to students.*

Area 2 — made-up stock storage and make-up

A typical study package may include course booklet ("section"), test or examination paper, and additional study aids.

On a daily basis a limited supply (say one week) should be called off the storage department. The individual items incorporated in one study package can then be collated and stored in "made-up stock storage". In this way, errors of omission of items from the study package are reduced. By making-up in bulk in this way, the number of errors should be reduced if compared with making-up individually.

The make-up department's task is to despatch study material and promotional material. They will receive envelopes or cartons suitably addressed from typing and extract from made-up stock storage and enclose the appropriate materials.

Area 3 — post-out and despatch

It is best to have a post-out and despatch department. One of the heaviest costs of the institution may be postage. The materials will be despatched at a variety of rates dependent upon weights. The Post Office regulations throughout the world are rather complex; as a result, an autonomous post department is to be preferred.

Area 4 — filing and recording

This department will be sub-divided into the following sections:-

1. Prospect enquiry filing.
2. Student filing.
3. Student progress recording.
4. Examination paper recording, in and out.
5. Study reminder submissions recording. This is the section that originates the despatch of materials and records them.

A considerable amount of thought should be given to student filing as this will, over the years, become extremely space consuming. There are several

alternative ways of filing available; research should determine the most suitable method for the institution.

Area 5 — typing

The typing pool should be sectionalised into copy typists and audio typists.

Area 6— tutorial

Individual offices for the tutorial staff including student advisers. (Director of studies and staff, student advisers, course writers, editors and full-time examiners).

Area 7 — management and services

Individual offices for the following:-

a) Principal

b) Financial and Accounts Staff

c) Promotion Staff

d) Careers Advisers

e) Others

The buying and stock control staff can be housed in the management and services offices. Alternatively, it could be housed in an individual office off the stock storage area.

It should be noted that no account has been made here of the printing department or lecture rooms.

The aim of the chosen position of individual departments in relation to each other is to cut down the time taken by documents to travel interdepartmentally, saving trouble and reducing the possibility of errors.

The accounts department should ideally be close to the recording and typing departments. However, the security aspect of any students' fees received might make this difficult. As a result, it is suggested that the accounts might be housed in the management and services offices instead.

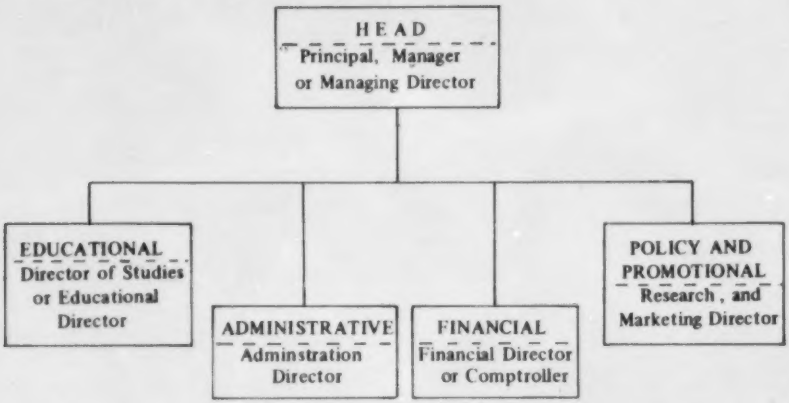
Staff organisational structure

For a correspondence institution to operate efficiently the line of staff communication and responsibility must be distinct and clearly laid down.

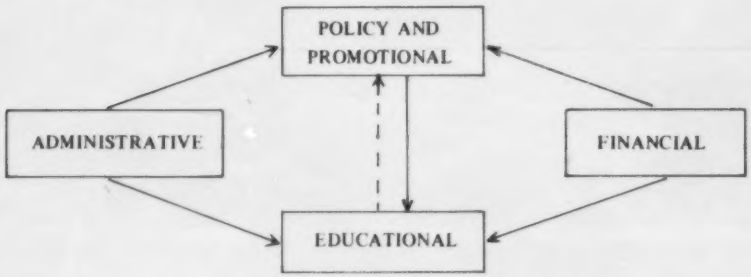
The head of an independent institution would most probably be responsible

to a board of directors. However, his will be the responsibility of running the institution and determining the institution's policy. In much the same way the head of a branch of an education establishment will be responsible to a higher officer or committee but he must be free to take many educational or administrative decisions.

A suggested organisational chart is as follows:-



The structure outlined departmentalises management into four heads — educational, policy and promotional, financial, and administrative. These departments are related in the following manner:-



Effectively the administrative and financial functions are service functions to the policy and promotional and to the educational functions. They ensure both administrative and financial efficiency.

The policy-making and development in the institution will be the combined responsibility of the Principal and the policy and promotional director. The

actual policy determined will depend largely upon the kind of educational demand and instruction, and as a result, the educational manager will be directly contributing to policy-making.

This concept of policy-making may cause disagreement with some educationalists who would insist on a priority of educational considerations. However, if it is considered that before a course of study is provided there *must* be an adquate demand, then perhaps the educationalists are *not* usually in the best position to estimate this demand.

Research into demand like other research is a specialised task which requires a specialised skill and possibly a special department.

The actual appointment of departmental heads by a new institution would very largely depend upon the nature of the institution. It will depend also on considerations of persons available for transfer or appointment and on the finance. With unlimited finance the ideal timing of the appointment of each departmental head may be to appoint all heads excepting the administrative head, at the outset. The administrative head would be appointed earlier, several months prior to the launch.

What kind of staff management policy?

The principal (or manager) of a correspondence institution has a most difficult job. His is the overall responsibility for all decision-making whether it be of an educational, financial, policy and promotional, or administrative nature.

Within as short a time as possible the heads of departments might be expected to undertake the overall responsibilities each of their own departments. During this time, they might be given the freedom to exercise their own initiative but with access to the principal to discuss freely plans and projects in hand. It is essential that a mutual bond of confidence should be built up between the principal and the departmental heads, so that they may express their views forcefully without fear of retribution. The concept of working *for* someone rather than *with* someone ought to be maintained. This can help to guard against possible complacency and resulting falling-off in standards. Gradually the heads of departments should start to accept responsibilities naturally, but without the nervous worry of the final responsibility, which must lie with the principal.

The progress of the departmental managers or heads should be monitored carefully by any principal to try to ensure that the necessary maturity is attained. It could be impressed upon them also to develop their own departmental "under-management" so that they may delegate the many day-to-day chores which can cloud any manager's ability to make rational

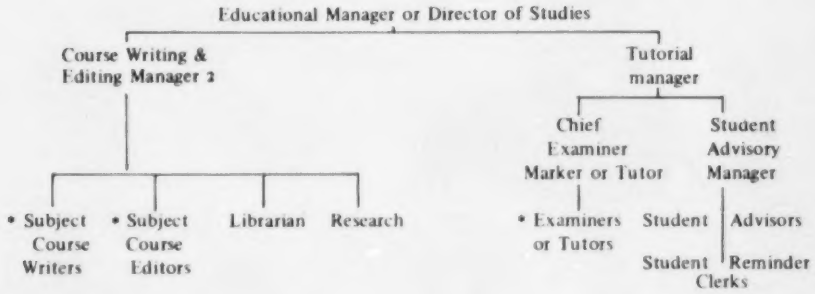
decisions. It is extremely dangerous to generalise for others a policy to follow in detail, but *some* generalisation ought to be made to guide each manager. The timing will largely depend upon circumstances. Departmental heads must be given the opportunity to exercise their initiative within a clearly stated policy. Under-management will give them the opportunity to express their abilities. To pursue a policy of this kind the principal must play a vigorous and active part himself in the running of the institution.

The main responsibilities and functions of the principal could be summarised as:-

1. Overall management of the institution to ensure efficiency,
2. Co-ordination of departmental heads activities,
3. Responsibility to maintain overall educational objectives,
4. Responsibility for final acceptance of the annual budget and the future expenditure allocation — educational or promotional, and
5. Responsibility for all promotional and course materials.

The educational management

The organisational structure of the educational department of a correspondence college is likely to take the following form — as indicated in the diagram below. It is clear that there are two main educational functions — *course preparation* and *tutoring*. At an earlier stage the functions below "writing and editing manager" and "tutorial manager" may be possibly carried out by part-time staff or merged with other duties.



•Possibly engaged part-time.

[2] This illustrates the relation of subject course writers and subject course editors to the home study editor (who is in fact the course writing and editing manager), in Chapter III.

The responsibilities and functions of the individuals in the educational department could be summarised as follows:-

The EDUCATIONAL MANAGER has to maintain the required standard of course materials. He may also represent the Institution as an educational establishment in the field of adult educcation (e.g. on committee). He has responsibility for the recruitment, training and management of the educational department. He makes course revisions, additions and examination/assignment revisions. He has to keep up-to-date with the developments within the field. He must of course co-ordinate with the policy and promotions manager, on the choice of subject matter for future courses.

The TUTORIAL MANAGER has responsibility for the recruitment, training and management of the student advisory manager and chief examiner; student advisers and examiners. He has responsibility for the quality control of all returns from the college to the students (correspondence or exams) and also responsibility for the effectiveness of correspondence to students — from the point of view of study motivation and parity. His co-operation with the course writing and editorial side is of course essential. The latter, the WRITING AND EDITING MANAGER, will have responsibility for the standard of course materials and examinations — from the point of view of motivation, parity and subject matter. He will also be responsible for the management and approvement of subject course writers, subject editors, librarian and reseach assistants. Another responsibility is for the training of subject course writers and editors. There is also the responsibility for co-ordination of course writing and the final printing, quite a worrying problem sometimes.

Possibly the tutorial manager in the earliest months (or years) of a small college may himself (or herself) carry out some or all of the functions of those who may become his chief assistants in examining and in advising students. What then is the job of the STUDENT ADVISORY MANAGER and of the CHIEF EXAMINER? The former must of course include controlling the day-to-day management of student advisers. It must pay close attention to the need for student correspondence to be kept up-to-date, and for seeing that the replies to student letters are prepared adequately and despatched with the minimum of delay. His specialist responsibility is for researching and evaluating student problems and for bringing them to the attention of the educational manager.

The chief examiner or chief tutor, on the other hand, would (as in any other educational institution with examination duties) have a responsibility for controlling the day-to-day work of the part-time or full-time tutors or examiners in setting and/or marking papers. Some colleges may be involved only with public examinations prepared by public boards. However, he may

have responsibility for keeping test and examination papers up-to-date in their content and questions, and for the quickness of return of written student papers. He has a responsibility for researching and evaluating those student problems which seem to result from their papers and bring such problems to the attention of the educational manager.

The assistant student advisors and assistant examiners will share the normal duties relevant to each of their responsibilities. These will on the one hand relate to the day-to-day replies to student correspondence and queries and for the motivation and encouragement of students in their letters to them. On the other hand there will be the usual day-to-day marking of examination papers. As this is a correspondence college they will have a special responsibility for considering examination problems raised by students and then answering them by letter.

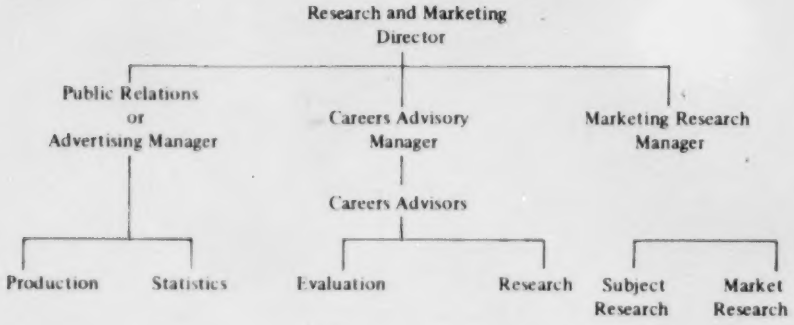
The COURSE WRITERS AND EDITORS, working under the senior educational manager have a particularly important function, central to the educational standards of the College. Simply expressed these involve:-

1. Responsibility for writing courses.
2. Responsibility for preparing study aids to be included with courses.

Obviously, responsibilities for individuals within the educational department will depend upon the number of individuals employed within that Department. As a result, the above responsibilities and functions of individuals are intended only as a rough guide.

Policy and Promotional Staff

An organisational structure of the policy and promotions wing of the college could be expressed much as below, in terms of a private commercial organisation. In a government department or institute the emphases and the titles will certainly be modified from those used here.



The responsibilities and functions of individuals employed within the Policy and Promotions Department might be as follows:-

Research and Marketing Director

1. Responsibility for the overall policy of the institution, and the progressing of this policy into the institutions development.
2. To promote the institutions courses in the "market-place" either for course fees (as agreed) or by encouraging voluntary participation.
3. Responsibility for promoting the institutions good name in terms of corporate advertising or public relations.
4. Responsibility for the recruitment, training and management of any individuals employed in Policy and Promotions Department.
5. Responsibility for the overall participation and updating of promotion materials.

Public Relations Officer or Advertising Manager

1. Responsibility for the management and recruitment and training of advertising personnel.
2. Responsibility for media research, the preparation of the institutions advertising schedule, booking and production of adverts.
3. Responsibility for keeping statistics to assess the effectiveness of the institutions advertising.

Careers Advisory Manager

1. Responsibility for the management, training and recruitment of careers advisers. Education should lead to employment where relevant.
2. Responsibility for answering student's careers problems, by correspondence, interview or by telephone.
3. Responsibility for promoting the institutions courses in careers guides etc.

Careers Advisors (where assisting)

1. Actual responsibility for answering day-to-day students' careers problems — whether by correspondence, interview or by telephone.

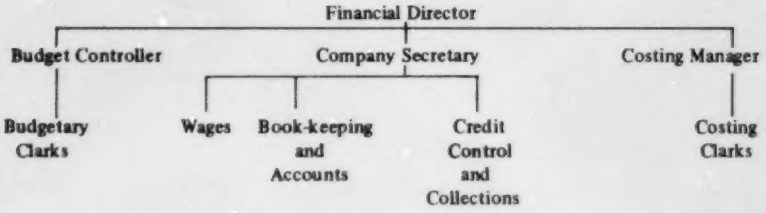
Marketing Research Manager

1. Responsibility for the management, training and recruitment of marketing field staff.

2. Responsibility for subject research.
3. Responsibility for market research.
4. Responsibility for co-ordinating information from the Advertising Department and Careers Advisory Department to aid subject and market research.

What are the Financial Department's Duties?

These will need to cover budgeting, costing, accounting, income (of all kinds) and of course expenditure. In some colleges the duties might be combined. An organisational structure chart of the Financial Department might look as follows, with three major functions to be seen to:-



The responsibilities and functions of the leading individuals employed within the Financial Departments are likely to include the following allocations:-

The FINANCIAL DIRECTOR has the senior responsibility for preparing the annual budget and also for maintaining the annual management accounting system to monitor actual financial progress in comparison to the budget. There is his responsibility to maintain financial books of account and prepare year-end accounts and deal with taxation (where liable). Further, there is his responsibility for controlling and collection of students' fees due and for controlling and payment of expenditure incurred. He would of course see to the recruitment, training and management of the financial departments personnel and have the main responsibility for maintaining and updating an effective costing system for *each* course, so that new decisions on courses can be taken with all the relevant facts available to the principal.

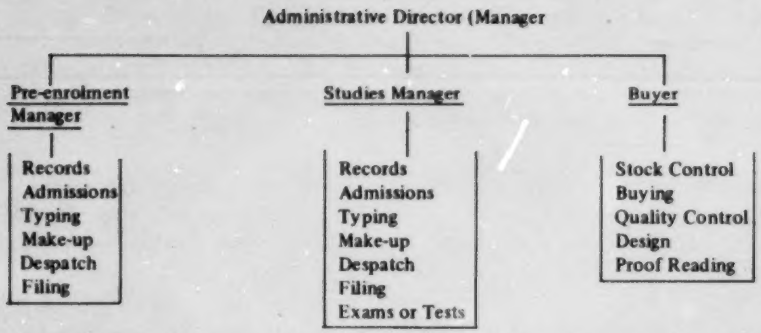
Under his guidance the BUDGETORY MANAGER has responsibility for the recruitment, training and management of budgetory personnel and for the preparation, of the annual budget. He will also, from time to time, compare actual results with the budget and where these vary from the budget estimates try to analyse these variances.

A COSTING MANAGER would be responsible for subject and market costings and for the pricing of each course in each market where these pricings vary from course to course. He would of course recruit, train and manage his costing clerks.

A COMPANY SECRETARY might be responsible for the recruitment, training and management of accounting staff and for the book-keeping and co-ordination of day-to-day actual financial progress with the budget controller. Credit control precedures can in some colleges be an important function as these institutions allow their students to pay for their courses by instalments. As a result, study materials are normally despatched to students on the receipt of each instalment. Credit control is the procedure whereby the despatch of study materials and the receipt of instalment payments is checked. He has the responsibility for collection of students fees, although sometimes fees are low or non-existent. The responsibility for the payment of expenditure incurred by the institution will rest with him.

The question of student fees for courses may only arise where these are the type of courses where the individual learner may gain financially (by employment or promotion prospects) by taking the course successfully. There may also be other situations, such as a "leisure-time" course where the learner has obvious strong motivation to learn a skill or a subject. In all such cases, whether the college or unit is private and commercial or is government promoted, there are strong reasons, both educational and economic for course fees to be fixed and paid, even if modified by official "scholarships" in selected instances. Some people may disagree with this for social or other reasons. Certainly where an authority has good reasons for persuading learners (in-service staff for instance) to study, and the individuals may be relatively uninterested or otherwide reluctant to make the effort, part of the incentive to study may be provided by minimal fees or none at all.

The ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENT might well be considered as equally important to a correspondence college as its specifically educational department. An organisational structure chart of the administrative department might take the following form. These will cover functions on which the whole structure of the college must rely entirely. If they fail the system of the college can grind to a halt.



The responsibility and functions of individuals employed in the Administrative Department are as follows:-

The ADMINISTRATION DIRECTOR must have responsibility for the clerical staff (typing, filing, make-up, stock control, buying and general clerical personnel). He will look after the buying of all promotional and course materials and subsequent stock control. He will also have to maintain an efficient general office and carry out frequent checks on its efficiency. There is his responsibility to review, research and initiate systems to improve or maintain the standard of service to the student and to review and initiate methods of "cost effective" automation to improve the standards of the office.

Under him the PRE-ENROLMENT MANAGER will be responsible for pre-enrolment personnel and for the efficiency of all *pre-enrolment* systems and that department. On the other hand, the STUDIES MANAGER has responsibility for all *studies* personnel and for the efficiency of the studies (or post-enrolment) department and its day-to-day running.

The BUYER and STOCK CONTROL MANAGER also has a key responsibility, which may prove far from easy where materials are scarce and prices variable. He is of course responsible for buying and stock-control personnel. He must take responsibility for stock control of promotional and course material (seeing that all types of printed material used will never run out when needed). He is responsible for the buying of all promotional and course materials and is also responsible for the quality control of all printed materials. He may have a responsibility for the co-ordination of the printing of new course materials with the course writing and editorial manager. If, as in many colleges in (for instance) Africa and Europe, the printing or stencil cutting of course and promotional material is carried on at the college itself, then the Stock Control Manager may be responsible also for a printing department or workshop.

CLERICAL STAFF. Experiences show that in all this type of activity the right blend of clerical "type" needs to be employed. If the recipe changes this varies depending upon the type of work performed. It is important that clerical workers who show particular enthusiasm, efficiency and clarity of actions should be given the opportunity to express their abilities in more testing tasks. For younger members of staff, promotion from the shop floor is a good morale booster and maintains confidence in management. Care must be taken not to promote newcomers (even exceptional individuals) too quickly. A demoralising effect on other members of staff can far outweigh the possible short term advantages to the institution. Promotion condidates should not be offered "safe promotion". This is when promotion is offered but in the event of failure the individual can return to his former position. If promotion is offered, it should be an all or nothing offer, either to be accepted or refused by the individual. Care should be taken not to talk an individual into a promotion — it must be offered. In the early stages of the development of the institution *young* clerical workers can be employed and given the necessary attention and training to make sure they succeed. As time progresses and the institution grows, the training of *new* employees tends to diminish. Rather than a manager actually training, he is tempted to watch progress, leaving the training to someone else in the department. As a result, the manager tends to play safe by just taking into the staff a better and more expensive type of individual. This can become a strain on the college's financial resources. To combat this, the need for really efficient under-management becomes a firm necessity. If a proper management structure is devised, of senior, middle and junior management, the training given to new employees and the supervision exercises can be much greater. In this way, the institution can employ less experienced individuals — at a cheaper wage. If this method is followed in a constructive way, and delegation is effective, the saving to the college can be substantial. However, to use this method and still maintain job satisfaction and morale it might be made plain to employees that only "cost of living" rises can be given once the optimum wage has been attained in a particular position. So within the structure an employee can develop his or her particular task to a point, at which stage the college cannot afford to pay a larger wage for the task performed. For the employee to receive a larger wage, it would be only if there was promotion. Such a policy may not be relevant in some countries.

An attitude must be adopted by all employees (management included) that each and every employee is important to the college. For employees to work effectively they must be happy and satisfied with the environment they work in. Within reason the ethos of the office, equipment supplied and companionship of colleagues must be as good as the institution can provide. Each individual has pride, and loss of it in front of colleagues is only excusable in extenuating circumstances. Each employee must have the confidence to discuss their job possibilities, work performance and personal

problems with the appropriate manager. This promotes a mutual management/clerical confidence.

Whether employees are to be praised or criticised they should be told firmly and regularly by managers. A regular contact, however, individually or in groups, is a necessity. When reprimanding an individual it must be done in a constructive manner. Firstly, reprimand the individual, clearly stating the incidents leading up to the reprimand. Explain the reasons for it and how the individual has got to improve. Depending upon the nature of the reprimand, in the majority of cases, let the individual leave knowing that they have been reprimanded but equally knowing that the management still possess faith in their abilities. Only reprimand in public as a shock measure. In cases where a pair or more of employees has a grievance, deal with them collectively at first and then individually.

Introduction of a system to monitor staff achievement can work in management's favour. "Employment Commence Sheet" could be compiled for each new employee and existing employees, and a regular note kept of employees progress during the year. In this way, when the annual review of wages is to take place, the progress sheets can be checked which can act as a good guide as to any rise to be given. Also, they will aid management in pin-pointing probable management material from amongst the staff at an early stage.

DEMAND ANALYSIS

Demand analysis is a specialist task which should where possible be left to the specialist. Specialists advice is often available and should be sought if possible as this is undoubtedly an extremely important factor in college policy-making whether or not operating on a commercial basis. When formulating a development plan and projecting ahead the Principal or Head must obviously analyse with some accuracy the scale of public response to the provision which is being proposed

EQUIPMENT

The college or other institution will need to invest in a variety of types of office equipment. The availability of equipment from one country to another will change, and as a result, it is not intended to deal with equipment in any detail in this handbook.

This is another area where specialists advice should be sought, before you purchase and install equipment. These days, the number of different types of

a particular piece of equipment is extensive. What may suit one institution may not suit another, and what may suit one country might be unsuitable or too expensive elsewhere. However, the types of office equipment that will probably be needed in the institution would probably include:-

> typewriters, dictating machines, accounting machines, addressing machines, sorting machines, duplicators, collating machines, filing cabinets and storage shelving, franking machines, and word-processing machines.

If the institution decided to typeset or lithograph its printed materials internally, then of course a complete printing department and its staff would be needed. Definitely a case for the specialist! What is certain is that an efficient institution must rely very heavily on an efficient typing-and-duplicating or printing service that can deal with bulk numbers and rushed orders. Unreliable or irregular print services can destroy the effectiveness of a correspondence unit.

ADMINSTRATIVE PROCEDURES

Anyone involved with the administration and the office organisation in an institution has of course his/her own ideas, attitudes and theories on how an institution should be run. Here, however, are three personal hints, and if followed they should ensure a reasonable degree of efficiency:-

1. Keep the systems simple.
2. Reduce decision-making by clerical workers to a minimum.
3. Before introducing a new refinement to a system, or before introducing a new system — do not do it for its own sake, but make sure that the reasons for changing are urgent and are sound.

One of the most common reasons for administrative inefficiency is that the systems have just grown over the years rather than have been developed. Often the reason is that the cost of changing the system fundamentally would be prohibitive and, also, the task would be too time consuming to management. Try not to let this happen. The cost in the long term can far out-weigh the short-term saving. Develop a system continuously and gradually

A survey of an administrative system is a somewhat tedious and unnecessary task. The success of most institutions can in general be judged in the following two ways:-

a) The quality of the course offered.

b) The quality of the service to students.

Didactically the "best" institution may be almost a complete failure if the service to students is poor.

To simplify this section of the handbook the following analysis has been adopted to explain the administrative systems.

There are basically four main or primary administrative systems which are:-

a) The enquiry system;

b) The enrolment system;

c) The student correspondence system, and

d) The exams system.

All other systems are branches of one of these primary systems and so will here be termed "secondary systems". Note that the words "primary" and "secondary" here are *not* used in any sense connected with schools or with educational levels.

MAIN "PRIMARY" SYSTEM

"SECONDARY" SYSTEM

POST IN

Opened, date stamped and sorted into:-

a) Enquiries + pre-enrolment correspondence, or
b) Enrolments + cash received (where this is a course with fee), or
c) Student letters, or
d) Examination papers (tests, student work).

ENQUIRY SYSTEM

a) Sort enquiries into:-
   1. Course required.
   2. Province or area of origin (if "outside" students accepted).
b) Separate pre-enrolment correspondence and pass to filing.
c) Typing of enquiries.
d) Make up of prospectus and promotional materials (dependent upon course required).
e) Despatch

PRE-ENROLMENT CORRESPONDENCE

a) Original enquiry card found and attached to letter.
b) Letter answered by Careers Adviser and passed to typing.
c) Enquiry card stamped for follow-up letter to be sent to student if required and filed under 'follow-up enquiry cards'.
d) Letter typed by audio typist.
e) Letter and contents (if any) despatched.

From Post in

ENROLMENT SYSTEM

A) Enrolments and cash received, sorted into batches.
b) Enrolments sorted into type of course, country or origin and passed to accounts.
c) Original enquiry card found and married to enrolment details.

"SECONDARY"

d) Typing of enrolments.
e) Make-up of study materials (dependant upon course required).
f) Despatch
g) Cash received, sorted from the enrolments, is now passed to accounts.
h) Receipts of student fees typed and despatched to student.
i) Note made on the students file stopping the despatch of student course materials if this is required.

ACCOUNTS — ENROLMENTS

a) Enrolments entered in the enrolment book and given an enrolment number.
b) Any discount, special terms etc. noted on the students account.
c) Student accounts card created for each student.
d) Enrolment passed to filing.

ACCOUNTS — CASH RECEIVED

a) For each student payment the enrolment number of the student must be found.
b) Student fees listed and posted to each individual student account.
c) Cash received paid into the bank account.
d) Receipt for student fees passed to typing.

ACCOUNTS — COLLECTIONS

a) Periodically reminder letters sent out to students where their fees are in arrears (where fees are paid in instalments).
b) Those badly in arrears — possibly students studies stopped, passed to filing and recorded.

STUDENT CORRESPONDENCE SYSTEM

a) Letters sorted and student file extracted from filing, letter and file passed to the Student Advisers (possibly via accounts for a check on the outstanding balance on the students account).

From Post In.

STUDENT ADVISORY

a) Reply to students letter dictated.
b) Other duties performed if needs be.

"PRIMARY"	"SECONDARY"
	Note to accounts re — students fees; studies stopped; studies re-started; delays on file noted; change of name or address noted on file.
b) Letter typed. c) Letter despatched together with whatever student requires.	From Post In.
EXAMINATION PAPERS AND STUDENT WORK SYSTEM a) Sort out examination papers into different courses and numbers. Despatch examination papers to individual examiners (tutors, markers).	From Post In.
b) Receipt of marked examination papers from examiners sorted. c) Record results of examination paper in each students individual file. d) Sort examination papers into those with letters and those without. e) Despatch, exams without letters (including answers). f) Pass exams with letters to Student Advisory for reply.	STUDENT ADVISORY — LETTERS WITH EXAMINATIONS
g) Despatch exam with letter reply.	Reply to student letter dictated.

SS

This method of revealing the administrative systems obviously only covers the basic systems.

Before closing any section on administrative procedures, something needs to be said about filing. The institution must decide how student files will be identified — i.e. whether by number or by name. Normally, the number method is adopted. If so, an intermediary identification system needs to be introduced between the enquiry card (showing the prospective students name) and the student file (showing student number). One way is to introduce a card for each student bearing the students number, name and address. These cards should be filed in alphabetical order of name.

FINANCE

The finances of any institution whether it be a correspondence institution or not, should be managed or checked by specialists —accountants. As a result, it is not intended in this handbook to delve too deeply into the theories of finance, but rather to make a few suggestions which may be of practical use — to those who are not accountants.

BASIC PRICING POLICY FOR COURSES

How do you price a correspondence course? Considering the number of variables that can effect the final price — the simple answer is, as effectively as you can considering the information and policy you have to consider. This information is created from two sources — "historical" and "informed" guess work.

The constituent costs in any one correspondence course can be analysed into the following headings:-

a) Promotional costs.

b) Course materials.

c) Postage.

d) Wages.

e) Fixed overheads.

f) Variable overheads.

g) Capital costs.

Let's consider each of these categories in turn.

a) *Promotional Costs*

These are many costs which are incurred in promoting the courses. For example — advertising, promotion materials (the prospectus), public relations. There are several different ways of absorbing these costs into the student fees. The simplest method being by calculating the anticipated number of students in a period.

b) *Course Materials*

This is the cost of all materials for the full course package. For example, text books, study manuals and any study aids.

c) *Postage*

This is self-explanatory, but as it frequently is an expensive item in correspondence teaching it should not be overlooked.

d) *Wages*

The full cost of all full-time and part-time employees.

e) *Fixed Overheads*

These are the overhead costs which will be incurred regardless of the number of students who will be enrolled.

f) *Variable Overheads*

These are the costs which will vary according to the number of enrolments in any period.

g) *Capital Costs*

These are the costs which will be incurred in producing the course, and as a result, a policy may be decided upon to write these costs off over a number of years or alternatively, a number of students.

It should be realised that this chapter has been devoted to dealing with the administration of an independent correspondence college. As such, it should give help to anyone intending to start a correspondence unit, whether it be independent or state-run. Many of the principles outlined will be similar regardless of the exact type of unit. In an independent institution it is normal that the Group Management on the highest level be a Commercial Manager. In practice, he is usually a Commercial/Education Manager, because it is almost impossible to differentiate the two tasks. However, for a state-run institution, it is more often than not an Educational Manager who will head the organisation. In this case, the Educational Manager will still be involved in many of the tasks that the Commercial Manager in an independent unit has to undertake. The two units may be dissimilar in many detailed ways, but in their main composition they are very similar.

A FOOTNOTE:-

Wiedhaup comments regarding the chapter above

". . . the structure is that of a typical commercial institute. In the future, correspondence education will be an integrated part in the educational system, in both developed and developing countries, or it will not therefore be an example that is significant. In my opinion I prefer group management on the highest level with a stress on the educational 'manager'. It is probably not true in the future that (e.g.) 'the educationalist is not in the best position to estimate the demand'. The demand will be a result of nationwide overall planning by government and semi-governmental bodies, and the Head of the Institute must be the one and only educational antenna. 'Marketing' has to be replaced by 'prospecting'. This and the co-operation with other media is the main task of the HEAD who can be assisted even on the same level (group managing) by an operational manager.

"This may seem to be a personal hobby, but it is more, it is a principle which you can find in the whole set-up of the institute, in the lay-out and the work-flow.

"I think it is very good to give the planned scheme in your book, but perhaps with the note that this is a typical '*market oriented scheme*' and that correspondence education as an agent in a multi-media educational approach may be different in some respects".

Chapter VI

AN ASIAN CASE STUDY, THAILAND

No case study can be expected to present a model of the exact way to plan and introduce a correspondence education institution in a new area. It can however try to relate theoretical analyses to a real situation and so leave the observer to deduce principles of application relevant to his own current problem and resources. Thailand (once known to many foreigners as Siam) is not really typical of many other 'third world' countries in some of its social and material conditions. It has for instance an old and sophisticated national culture, a long-established and continuous history of independence, and is in many senses well-endowed in material and economic resources. It is not a small country either in area (514,000 sq. km.) or in population (over 43 millions) although surrounded by the giant populations of China, India and (further away) Indonesia. However in the recent century it has been strikingly hospitable to cultural influences from its onetime neighbour, British India, — and Britain. Over 85% of its people are in rural and agricultural communities, well over half its people are under 20, and its industrial development is still relatively rudimentary. It is presented here because a recent study by an official team in the area (an international team of specialists)[1] was concerned primarily with distance education as a major future contribution to a solution for immense social and development problems. Perhaps it may illustrate some basic and practical principles, warnings and guidance for similar exercises elsewhere. The issues that arose, although not their precise form and details, are likely to arise also in other and more localised forms and to be common to other communities.

These issues are first the nature of the problems, and their scale, which distance education may be asked to solve or to alleviate. Secondly there are the cultural background and the initial educational expectations and experience (in its widest sense) of the community. There is thirdly, existing local practice and administrative provision of education, particularly that for adults. Fourthly, there is the economic setting and physical background of the country. Finally there are existing or potential resources (or their lack) of local skills, experience and finance which may be available and relevant for distance education. A category of educational development problems in

[1] *"Educational media for Thailand"*, 1974, UNESCO (Not available for general public use).

Thailand would, on the whole, provide familiar reading for those from other developing societies. An increasing rate of gross national product is however matched by serious and even greater growth in income inequalities. Rapid rural-to-urban migration has greatly augmented the unemployment problem in urban areas. Population may reach 100 million by the end of the century. Far greater equality of educational opportunity and the development of habits of democratic opportunity and participation were seen by the government as major and urgent objectives. Education needed reform.

So to these objectives should be added an awareness in the country that much of the elementary and secondary curriculum was irrelevant to both adult and child needs, over-academic and not taught very effectively.

The scale of the problems can be grasped by considering, together with the size and 3.1% growth rate of population, the facts of 60,000 villages, a capital city (Bangkok) of over four millions, an overall density of 80 per square kilometres, and 250,000 school teachers (most of whom required reorientation or training). Any solution, the team had concluded, had to adapt methods with the "greatest possible multiplier effect". Administratively much of the responsibility and execution of scholastic education below university level lay with 70 provincial authorities. In adult and community education the initiative at the centre lay with a large variety of government divisions and departments in six different ministries, although the execution of policies depended mainly on officials at provincial and sub-provincial level and on primary school teachers. The administrative and commercial capital was approximately central to an elongatged territory of low plateau and fertile river delta with rugged highland ranges on the margins. Many rivers provided both supplementary transport routes and seasonal flood waters.

A schooling system, based initially very closely on a Western pattern (largely an English model) had been introduced as early as 1900. It had *not* been modified very fundamentally or brought up-to-date over the intervening years. The total school population, over 6,000,000 elementary pupils in 1973, provided the familiar examination hurdles at each yearly school grade, with the consequent huge "dropout" of "failed" pupils. These would become part-educated young adults and leave in the country a very large residue of unschooled or semi-schooled men and women. The private classes (largely Buddhist, and in temple grounds) and the Ministry "second-chance" evening classes gave evidence of a huge potential adult enrolment (possibly 150,000). Numbers seemed to be limited only by the availability of teachers, premises and classes (mainly evening classes). There were additional problems of a shortage of suitable teachers and both of teacher-training and teacher re-training for adults, familiar to many other countries. There were also many problems of specialist need for civil service in-training. In theory at least there were therefore enormous possibilities for "teaching at a distance"

with an almost unlimited clientele. This was amongst a population with, moreover, a strong tradition of book learning and with their own unique alphabet and also with a fast developing industrial and commercial economy.

On the surface there seemed to be many of those very factors which had led earlier (more than half a century ago) to intensive use of correspondence study in Britain, America and finally all over Europe.

There were of course, many difficulties and differences. One of the latter was the concentration of major educational initiatives with the government itself. Any launching of new large-scale educational institutions had inevitably to be with governmental resources. There was also an element of urgency for such new developments due to population growth and political pressures. They could not be left only to the slower development of a private commercial tradition. There was some tradition of official educational experiment and initiative in that, three years previously, the Thais had initiated the Ramchamhaeng "Open University". That was, of course, a matter quite distinct from distance education, with its own unique tale, but it had been at least an attempt to provide wider university education, on a large campus, using great halls serviced by many television monitors! The enrolment had been overwhelming!

There was also another and smaller educational service provided through a large semi-independent, semi-official "Teachers' Association" (a type of employee union) with the initials K.R.U.S.A.P.A. This service was known as the "postal courses", and was a rudimentory means of "distance-learning" to help school teachers to attain proper examination qualifications. Although the postal services were involved, the main features of the service were a simple list of text books and set books and some advice through a very small staff of subject tutors. There were no study manuals although "Krusapa" published the text-books cheaply from its own printing unit. There was, therefore, no local tradition of real "distance teaching" in Thailand apart, perhaps, from that existing amongst a very small handful of students studying individually for English qualifications in English through foreign non-Asian or Malayan/Singapore administered commercial correspondence colleges.

The Thai Government, at the time of this suggestion regarding correspondence education, were investigating (with Unesco assistance) the establishment of a major development of mass media to reform and extend the whole educational service of the country (in-school and out-of-school). Technology was to be harnessed to meet educational needs. Correspondence education was therefore thought of as an element in a pattern of democratic educational opportunity. It was also conceived of as a part of a multi-media approach, with a link between correspondence study and at least the radio

transmissions. Other official leads laid down for any future radio/correspondence system was that it was to place its emphasis as far as possible on adult study and on the large rural sector where 80%of the population were living, rather than on merely the urban concentrations where most evening classes were to be found. The formal college or university sectors were excluded from this scheme. The correspondence education was required to lay its main stress on study by adults for school-type qualifications. The arguments presented for this were largely social and political, and this created the setting governing the planning of any large-scale correspondence unit or department. The rural community was (it was felt) relatively under-privileged educationally, mainly because of the shortage of teachers and their quality in village centres and of the difficulty of rural travel to the organised evening classes in rural towns. Each village was often well-grouped, but distant from its neighbour and unable to support adult class numbers adequate for any one particular level of scholastic study. This meant planning for individual home study or small-group study.

On the other hand the existing urban second-chance classes were often very large, with enrolments of 20 to 50. The class meetings were in schools or on temple premises each with a crowded timetable and conducted by teachers often devoted to their work, but with quite inadequate training in teaching or no training at all. Another special circumstance in the Thai situation was the very old tradition of Buddhist education and the Buddhist veneration of, and sponsorship of learning. Many Buddhist priest "colleges" were to be found in the countryside. The tradition was strongest in the rural areas, but was still a visible force in the towns and many temple compounds were teaching areas. It was calculated that a very considerable proportion of the second-chance class members in at least some provincial towns were Buddhist monks and novices. It was an old tradition that all young Buddhist men spent at least a few months in the priesthood with shaven head, barefoot and yellow-robed. Although this tradition had declined in the towns, many in the urban classes also were undergoing both general and religious (or moral) training. The proportion of monks in evening classes was sometimes claimed (by government education officers) to be as high as 60%or over, although this was possibly an exaggeration. Nevertheless there was a Buddhist training tradition of ascetic living, meditation, disciplined observances and rites and memorising of Buddhist rules and sayings. Almost every Thai village, however isolated, had its temple compound and its religious leaders, a normal focus for community life there.

A factor making less difficult the introduction of a correspondence method for learning was the widespread and ready use of the Thai language by the people. In spite of provincial variations, there was really only one language and one local alphabet (not ideograms) to be considered, even though a large Chinese ethnic element has been absorbed into the population. Other small

border communities existed in the Northern and North-Eastern frontiers and a more distinct Moslem element in the far South (adjoining Malysia). The use of the Thai alphabet was general in the country, even though English was studied.

Less helpful was the fact that Thai was a tonal language, as spoken, and this was only partly modified by an "experimental" system of tonal notation in print. Also, as with many other languages, there was a very wide difference (so one understands) between written Thai styles of expression and the spoken colloquial even of the well-educated. It was very difficult for a foreign advisor to be in any position to judge just how easy it would be to develop a sufficiently informal and intimate style in the written language to serve the needs of correspondence teaching. It was some guide to the future that journalist styles and intimate broadcasting styles were beginning to evolve in Thailand. At least one particular (non-professional) broadcaster had begun to develop a reputation as a "popular" lecturer on academic subjects in the private weekly radio programme called "University on the Air". These were only straws in the wind. One gathered from discussion with educationalists that a newer and more effective language style was just as desirable in the Thai classroom also. One could only rely on the probability that an understanding of the real needs of distance teaching in writing would provide the impetus for a suitable written style eventually to develop. If a large-scale and effective Thai correspondence education approach comes into full flower, it will (as far as the writer is aware) be the only example of its use with a (five) tonal language where tonal inflection may be the major guide to precise meaning. The problem could be met only through experiencing the method in practice.

If the learner were to be visualised in the first place as rural-based and village-based, there was initially the problem of regular postal communication between learner and correspondence unit and between both and the correspondence tutor. Normally, communication by printed and written word between the government ministry of education and the school class or the public was through the officers of the provincial and district (Changwad and Amphur)areas and through the regular visiting of these offices by the head teachers. The regular business between local education employees included the numerous provincial-based school examinations. Regular 'bus services connected the main towns and passed close to a proportion of the larger villages. Primary school headteachers visited the towns monthly to collect teacher salaries. Within the villages the houses were normally grouped within easy walking distance. Communction by postal packet could probably be arranged, by 'bus according to different ways in the different regions and with reasonable regularity. Again, the exact problems and the answers to them would be uncovered only by experiment. The place of actual study might present its own problems, but the houses of most adult students were

not likely in the Thai context to lack for space, and oil pressure lamps were not uncommon.

The typical Thai house in the village was raised on poles at above head level, with storage, shelter and shaded daytime activities in the open space below and therefore was probably relatively quiet for study. Most Thai houses at this time (1974) were likely to be equipped with small transistor radios and there was strong probability that every village within range of one or more of the numerous radio transmitters (mainly commercially or privately financed) would have many privately owned transistor radio sets –listened to mainly by informal groups of villagers. It was likely that any radio study would have also a large "eavesdropping" or casual audience. This might help to overcome any sense of isolation amongst those engaged privately in home-study and provide a form of social contact and discussion if it did not distract from concentration. It was likely that any "rural students" would be able to gather in sufficiently large numbers to form effective village adult study-groups for particular examination study.

With the urban adult "second-chance" classes meeting in crowded school rooms the situation would be entirely different. Possibly the presence of teachers in these large classes would be helpful to the learning from the correspondence lessons. The quality of class teaching would be helped by good correspondence lessons used as textbooks. However, the teacher interpreting correspondence texts was likely to be serving a different role from that of the normal class teacher in the traditional Thai class. Both roles are quite different, in large classes of 30 to 50, from that of the Open University tutor with a small tutorial group in Britain at a far more advanced level of academic discussion. It was not easy to anticipate the response of the Thai adult student, used to a very crowded three hours of "solid" evening tuition (from 17.00 hours to 20.00 hours). The problems could be blamed on a school-based syllabus intended originally for a full daytime curriculum and timetable intended for children. A reform of curriculum for adult use was particularly overdue in this type of part-time study. As one problem was considered, other problems became more apparent — such as the desirability of a more effective teaching style for adults in evening classes. This was not strictly a problem only for correspondence education, although it inderlined the need for a writer to understand the contemporary cultural setting into which the correspondence lessons or manuals had to be fitted.

It stressed also the possible need for a different style of lesson-writing for a *teacher-led class group* from that for individual home-study. This was particularly likely where weakness in class-teaching style might be corrected in part by a heavy reliance of class teachers on both the content and the more attractive style of a correspondence text. The text might in the former case include or be supplemented by teacher notes. Training short courses would

be advisable for the guidance of evening class teachers who would in many cases be inadequately trained or totally untrained. Because of the shortage and lack of variety of available class textbooks, the role of the teacher would be specifically to interpret rather than to read out the correspondence text and to supplement it with local illustrations, visual aids and additional factual material. The teacher might be relied on to replace the correspondence tutor as supervisor and commentator on student work, although (in a large class) this could be more onerous than straight exposition of a subject in class. Radio use in adult evening classes raises quite different problems for the teacher. Any broadcast during the class study period would probably be concentrated into a 30-minute "slot" early in the evening, cover two subjects in that time and be commented on in later periods by the teachers in class. Recorded broadcasts on tape cassettes would make it more possible to experiment with different programmes of use in class, but in general the correspondence course seemed to offer greater flexibility in such a formal group setting.

As the method was through use of the written or printed word, there was an obvious lower limit to the examination study level to which it could be applied *for individual use*. If the learner was to study mainly or entirely at home, and aided primarily through postal communications, he or she had to be already literate with an effective width and fluency of understanding. He had also to be capable of self-discipline in learning on his own, to overcome the normal personal hazards and distractions of self-study and to apply himself to a largely unsupervised timetable. It was known that the greatest numercial concentration of possible students and the potential demand was at the levels shown as Adult Levels 3 and 4, coinciding with the requirements of the lowest formal teacher qualifications. This seemed also to provide a reasonable lower starting point for the use of this type of correspondence education, with the learners probably able to make effective use of the study material. The courses would be forced to take full note of the examination syllabus and requirements, but it was equally desirable that examiners, and those who were responsible for setting the examination papers should take equal note of the new teaching medium, of the adult students and of the course material itself. The examining boards for adult scholastic courses might in some way include the correspondence course providers. A particular Thai feature, that lower school examinations were the direct responsibility of the provincial (Changwad) education office, would need to be given due attention.

The second emphasis in distance education was on in-training, not for examinations at school level, but for improved performance by selected types of community workers in the field. These would include the primary school teachers who so frequently carry out duties in adult and community education. This would probably involve not courses of many distinct

correspondence lessons, but printed matter sequenced as support material for radio transmissions and for residential courses and conferences. They would be intended as follow-up and supplementary material for those with a level of training and experience already achieved. The numbers involved as learners would be far smaller and the economic justification for such courses would be that the learners were themselves "middle-level" leaders influencing their local communities in their normal work. Most of these would be in government employment, as agricultural officers perhaps, or community development workers and the incentive for learners would probably be certification and possible promotion.

The special feature of the planning was the linking of correspondence courses with educational radio. This has its own difficulties where an educational radio network must compete for an audience with many other "popular" radio stations and where it is asked to provide for many diverse "educative" and "educational" objectives, formal and informal. It has been estimated that in Thailand at least 150 radio transmitters can be heard with various degrees of strength and regularity. It also has its obvious strengths where most adults will probably have access to a transistor radio. The radio link will have to establish its regular pattern of transmission for those who wish to hear this type of learning programme and provide also its regular repeat programmes for those who missed particular broadcasts. It will have to be lively and attractive in its own way with a true professionalism in production, but it must also give specific support to the correspondence lesson. It must "fight" not only to hold and support its regular committed students, but also to attract a more general casual and intermittent audience whose interest might be roused although to a more passive degree.

The planning for correspondence education in Thailand must be seen, as in many other countries, against the broader background of schemes for the use of broadcasting media and other educational technology for all education (formal and non-formal) and for the whole community. The report team recognised that "out-of-school" (or "adult" or "non-formal") education involved a number of different areas and emphases and that broadcasting functions had to attend to each of these. In summary these were first general information and informal entertainment with a wide educational purpose, secondly, encouragement of community involvement and self-development, thirdly specific development objectives and campaigns and fourthly, the areas linked to structured formal qualifications and training. It was with the last two, and particularly the fourth, that correspondence education was most likely to be used, either as full courses or as sequenced print support material. However, there were conceivable uses for correspondence study arising even from the first two areas and its possibilities should not be too limited by traditions of use elsewhere.

For practical reasons, including expense, the linking of correspondence with broadcasting to adult audiences was more likely to be with radio rather than with television (although there were four T.V. stations operating locally). The proposal was firmly for a Ministry of Education radio network with transmitters and local studios carefully sited to cover almost the whole population of forty millions. The radio programmes' daily and weekly schedule had to cover all four of the functional areas referred to above. It had also to "win" and to hold a regular audience and at the same time to fit in the necessary support for correspondence. The construction of such a full broadcasting schedule to serve all the many uses and to total possibly some eighteen hours daily, needed very experienced proffessional advice. Apart from, though integrating with, the weekday schools' or schoolteachers' programmes and with the non-network television or video input, the radio broadcasts for adults had to include general education programmes, news and education-oriented entertainment, functional literacy support, community involvement and participation, "second-chance" education, extension workers in-training, programmes for parents, vocational training support and specific development programme support. Print or correspondence links might be involved in some way in many of these, as courses or as feedback, but the regular main correspondence-radio link would clearly be in the "second-chance" examinations. Here there were obvious dangers to be avoided.

One danger was the immediate overstraining of a new and under experienced correspondence education unit by an avalanche of eager home learners. There would be a backlog of impatient adult candidates, not all of whom were even able or qualified to understand or to withstand the demands of this unfamiliar method of learning. Another danger was the social problem, enlargement or perpetuation of a stagnant reservoir of paper-qualified "educated unemployed", not really very relevant to meeting community needs. Both the tactics and the pace of introducing such new examination-oriented services (through correspondence) had to be planned very carefully. Also the content and curricula of correspondence courses must avoid following too blindly the schools' lead and needs to keep touch with the labour market. As the appendix (following) makes clear, a certain limited number of objectives, levels and examination subject areas were to be introduced gradually. Even geographical (regional) limits of the services were to be controlled. It was possible otherwise that the eager and articulate demand from urban (and metropolitan) areas would monopolise the services and defeat entirely the official intention to compensate for rural "inequality of opportunity". The radio support for the study of subjects would vary according to the nature of the subject. Possibly this could be exposition and discussion for Social Orientation, pronunciation and conversation for English language, enrichment and examples for Thai culture and language and experimental methods of dealing with student queries in Physics and

Mathematics. All this would have to be carefully shaped to fit fifteen minute or half-hour "slots" weekly with repeats at weekends.

The whole of the project for correspondence-radio in the area of home-study or of group study (supervised class or unsupervised) was experimental and would need careful observation and evaluation. Any on-going research required accurate planning and interpreting and the conclusions (if firm enough) put to practical use without delay. The research activity would be vital, if only to justify the capital and recurrent cost of change and the resulting disturbance. The important questions for study by research would be how far any of the proposed new educational methods really gave satisfactory results in the Thai context, whether they were a substantial improvement on the existing system. What was the hard evidence of their effectiveness, of their positive contribution to national needs; what was the best form of their operation and could these new systems be themselves adjusted and improved on before setting firm in a rigid pattern of perhaps mediocre efficiency and limited value — yet another vested interest? When and how could a distance system be enlarged safely to serve a wider enrolment and variety of uses? The research activity had to preserve both close relationships with the distance administration and some degree of independence.

The variables to be assessed, apart from the simple criteria of examination results, had to include the views of teachers and of learners, and the detailed use of methods by the learners, and by the class teachers and distance tutors. Operational procedures at all points such as production, co-ordination and distribution would have to be observed closely and monitored with a view to necessary reforms. It was proposed that the new alternative learning situations should be piloted in separate geographical regions, each with comparable but distinct categories of 500 to 600 adult students. The situations would all arise from different uses of three settings or factors, namely home study by correspondence, group study by correspondence, and radio teaching. In Thailand the clients were rural or urban "home students" and urban evening classes.

One category would study in relative isolation by correspondence course and distance tutor. The second would study the same course individually but assisted by radio broadcasts as well as by distance tutors. Meanwhile the third category would work with correspondence courses, but in evening classes with class teachers, with special radio programmes directed at class study. This category of student would also be able to hear the home study broadcasts. Helpful comparisons could be made with two control categories, the first with the existing traditional evening classes, the second with evening classes taken by teachers but with no correspondence course and only the radio adult teaching element (similar to the situation in some school classes).

Other combinations of the three factors were of course possible, but were less probable in the Thai setting. The first category would need to be taken from an area out of range of the broadcasts during the relevant year. The third category would require facilities to record and replay the class-broadcasts on cassette (the broadcasts being less essential "live" in this case).

This type of research, essential to a realistic assessment of any official investment in a new education approach in Thailand, could obviously contribute much to deepening international knowledge of distance education methodology. The same kind of comparable facts such as those on enrolment, student attitudes, student learning activity, dropout, teacher use and examination results, would be drawn from each of the five situations over one year periods. Further information could be deduced on the better designing of such integrated or non-integrated courses, on the effect of the radio on actual use of correspondence courses, and on operational problems of each type of course in the Thai context. The conclusions would have even wider implications elsewhere in the world than in Thailand itself.

APPENDIX A

PEDAGOGICAL AIMS, OPPORTUNITIES AND DRAWBACKS IN THAILAND

(adapted and extracted from an article in Epistoladidaktika* - 1976-1)

by Conrad J.J. Wiedhaup

Could correspondence education within a multi-media approach be of any help in solving the huge educational problems in Thailand?. . . .

A pre-investment team of UNESCO tried to answer this question and wrote a report of more than 500 pages after thorough research and gathered information. The conclusions might serve other countries and other purposes as well, be it only an early warning for over-enthusiastic social educators. . .

Whilst we thus may appreciate the fact that the mass media experts decided to ask for the help of correspondence educators, the helter-skelter way in which the consultant on operational possibilities of correspondence education had to join the team was once again characteristic for our often 'forgotten medium'.

A thousand problems!. . . but the Thais still exercise "sanook": carpe diem, the desire for immediate pleasure, the wisdom of "time is not money". And they still talk about their problems smiling and. . . in a very difficult language! A tonal language with dialect variations in which the same word can have five or more meanings, depending on the pitch (think of the consequence for correspondence education!). The alphabet has 76 characters and four tone symbols which certainly is not really helpful in literacy programmes.

Only three million Thais speak a Chinese dialect and one million a Malayan. So there is a relatively strong linguistic unit. Far stronger however is the religious unity: Buddhism is the state religion and more than 95% of the Thais are convinced Buddhists. Culture, ways of thinking, the appearance of the cities and towns (with the many temples and convents, Wats) prove this integrated Buddhism. It is an advantage that Buddhism has a very strong trend to teaching and learning and no activity in the educational field is fruitful without the help of the Sangha, the organisation of Buddhist monks. Not only in education are the monks omnipresent. In Bangkok the author

was invited to the opening ceremony of a new snack bar, which ceremony was consecrated by a monk in yellow robes, burning incense, holding a candle and offering a flower. Another invitation brought him to a beauty contest in the open air, where Thai girls gave a show for the benefit of the smiling monks.

These examples are characteristic of one of the main cultural problems: the meeting of, the integration of, the collision of two worlds; for the twain *did* meet here as two examples from many may witness:-

Two girls, working for the Unesco team on statistics and in the Ministry of Education. One with a sophisticated Japanese electronic calculator, the other with a centuries old Chinese abacus. . .

The first announcement on the radio I could understand was a commercial announcement for the film 'Jesus Christ, Superstar' in this 95% Buddhist country. . .

Will the unique Thai identity, the rich Thai culture survive in this cultural mishmash? Only a nationwide system of lifelong education, radiating Thai culture, working in the direction of integrating eastern and western culture and using modern mass media can give hope of survival. . .

SCHOOL SYSTEM

The constitution of 1932 brought compulsory education, at least in theory. Not before the early years of the sixties however, did a National Scheme of schools come into operation, in which many ministeries were involved, working along different lines, but all of them marked with red tape, as the author experienced, driven from pillar to post.

The school system was based on the 7-5-4 formula. Elementary school 7 years, i.e. 4 low and 3 high (Pratom); Secondary school 5 years, or 3 low and 2 high (Mawsaw); Professional training after 3 low, a kind of comprehensive school.

Tertiary school 4 years, not unlike the U.S. college system. In 1969 Thailand joined the Karachi plan: obligatory education (de facto!) from 4-7 years of age, which made a huge decentralisation and a great number of teachers and schools necessary. There are two striking characteristics in the Thai school system, which strengthen the need for a second-chance educational system for young adults and adolescents.

The first characteristic, even in the lower grades of elementary education, is the fact that nearly every step is marked by a certificate or diploma, issued on the provincial level (Changwad). This causes an enormous amount of administration, and marking the papers is not seldom done by "moonlighting" public officers of the Ministry of Education. According to the statistics no less than 7 million children are pupils of elementary schools. The diploma cult (status symbol and, often, free ticket to "white collar" unempoloyment far away from the village) causes corruption in many cases. "A headmaster and a teacher have been arrested and accused of selling false certificates to students. Each certificate cost 600-2000 Baht (£15-£50)". This is a recent quotation from Bangkok Post.

The second characteristic is strongly related with the examination system which reminds us of the mandarin education system of former China. The drop-out rate of this knock-out competition is increased in a dangerous way by this sytem and, because even for the certificated students there is no follow-up, in Thailand the phrase "drop-out is waste" is more true than anywhere else.

Once again, according to the statistics the illiteracy rate is now 20% for men and 40% for women in rural areas (85% of the population being rural). Illiteracy among children (10-14) is 15%. We must not underestimate the devotion and activity behind these figures. They make it the more disappointing that far more than half of the energy of students and teachers is wasted by lack of possibilities for practice afterwards, which causes total loss of knowledge and skills in a few years. It is certain that at least half of the low literate children will become "functional illiterates" after a couple of years. The government is thus faced by two overwhelming problems, like those in any developing country:

a) To provide for more and more teachers and schools to improve literacy in a country with a population growth of 3.3% per year feels "like climbing a down-going escalator" complained an official. But not only teachers are badly wanted, also community development workers who have to be recruited out of the same type of candidates.

b) To provide for continued and functional education. For that purpose there are in the larger communities well attended evening classes for "second-chance education", mostly organised by monks; there are kiosk-like village reading centres; there are mobile units for technical and craft training and there can be distance education. It is the writer's firm conviction that the latter can solve many of the problems, especially in rural areas. The equality of chances in the rural and urban areas is considered as very important by the government, from a social, an economic and a political point of view and to prevent "brain-drain" in

the direction of the city, and the rural areas feel neglected and not without reason.

These are some problems, specific for the more developed developing countries, and in Thailand complicated by a strong cultural collision. . .

CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION

A large part of the work of the study team was devoted to technical questions e.g. *where* the planned 8 radio transmitters had to be built and the power they had to have to cover nearly the whole of Thailand, *how* studios had to be equipped and staffed, *what kind* of telephone connections were necessary etc. I left these problems very gladly to my technical friends and confined myself to some remarks regarding the component 'Correspondence Education' in the planned multi-media operation. (T.V. proved feasible only in urban areas, see above).

In the Bangkok area a number of correspondence schools from abroad are operating, mostly on the higher technical and commercial levels. For a modern approach in correspondence/radio education it is an absolute conditon that a new unit be established. For political reasons this unit must not have its seat in Bangkok but somewhere in the country, but it is obvious that postal problems and staffing will meet more difficulties there than in the capital. As a compromise, a unit for the central activities was planned in Bangkok (curriculum development, course writing, printing) and the counselling and guidance activities, expedition and storage were planned in a few regional centres.

The general conclusion was that it seemed possible that establishment of a new unit serving 15,000 students (to be followed by similar units) could be based on the principle of self-support as far as the recurrent costs are concerned; with fees from the (Thai) students on the same level as fees paid in evening classes. Three or four years would be necessary for coming into full operation. Management and staff members could be trained on the job in schools abroad.

Copying the technical and organisational system from corrrespondence schools in developed countries is not possible in view of the different standard of living and the difference of wages. Many things nowadays that are organised by automation and mechanisation in Europe and U.S.A. can be done far more cheaply by hand, thus giving help in solving the unemployment problems as well.

It will be clear that the first target for the curriculum chosen was the development of second-chance general education as follow-up, brushing-up and socialising elementary and incomplete secondary education. It is also obvious that the necessary individual approach asked for the development of a modular system of units. These units had to be, in order to have possibility of integrating with evening classes, Thai language and culture, English, Hygiene, Social Orientation, Physics and Mathematics. Certificates of all units together are to be changed into a recognised official diploma.

The curriculum must give high priority to lessons dedicated to actual social problems, agriculture, birth control, hygiene, civics, democracy, these having worth per se as sub-units so that drop-outs, not completing a full unit course, will not have wasted their time.

The organisation of the correspondence education unit will not differ very much from that in the institutes we know elsewhere. There are specific problems, however. A major one is the lack of sufficient and efficient postal communications. There are postal connections by bus to the smaller country towns. The larger villages have possibilities of having mail picked up by local shopkeepers etc. But in the very remote smaller villages and hamlets there is no delivery at all. One idea, typical for Thailand, was worked out to be discussed with the Sangha: let the homework be collected by the Buddhist mendicants who knock at every door anyhow!

In the integration of correspondence education and radio a thorough process analysis has to be executed before dividing the tasks. One principle is clear: both components must have synchronised but independent curricula and must work in their own rhythm, with a wide network of cross-connections. Missing one or two radio lessons in harvest time must not be a handicap in studying the written material and failures of the postal system must not frustrate the radio course.

The first contribution of radio here can be enrichment, giving concrete examples, dramatising, interviewing, reporting.

Another help of radio is in the oral drills in language teaching and discussing the problems arising from the tonality of Thai language, possibly developing a phonetic transcription of the language in this respect.

The most important part for radio however will be the motivation of the students, and the "eavesdropping effect" of fellow villagers, potential students. . .

Because the corrected homework will only reach the student after a couple of weeks, radio has the possibility of bridging the gap as far as possible, by

giving the right answer to some crucial questions, or discussing them in a students' panel before the student has to start with the next lesson.

A very important idea was worked out: make radio a link between students, let them hear others and let them hear that fellow students can also make mistakes and stupid remarks.

Discuss general problems in the subjects and in study techniques, give the names of students, congratulate them with their success, in short: introduce educational *disc-jockeys!*. . ."

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